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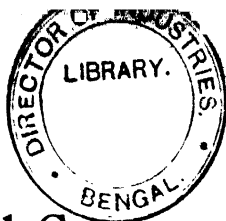
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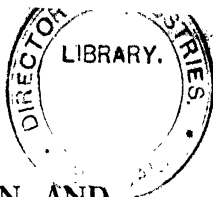
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ORGANISATION AND POWERS.

The history and general features of Local Government in Great Britain are given in the books named in the Bibliography (see page 228). The latest information as to details is to be found in the Minutes of the Evidence of the Royal Commission on Local Government, 1923-1924. The existing system of Local Government is mainly the result of action taken in the last half century. The older machinery broke down after efforts had been made to extend it. With the improvement of Local Government and in addition to the introduction of elective democracy, central supervision and control were created. At present the chief Local Government units are the City of London, the County of London, Metropolitan Boroughs, Counties (62), County Boroughs (82), other Boroughs (253), Urban Districts (782), and Rural Districts (663); but there are in addition many Boards and Committees which have separate financial transactions, and the whole number of Local Authorities in England and Wales alone is about 25,000.

The chief Local Government units mentioned above include populations varying from over 500,000 to less than 500 persons. Each of these groups of population is governed locally by a body generally known as the Council.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ELECTORS.

The Representation of the People Act, 1918, has substituted the phrase "local government electors" for the older phrases "burgesses," "parochial electors," &c. (See page 45, Electoral Law.)

Men.—Under Section 3 of the Act a man is entitled to be registered as an elector if he is of full age and not subject to any legal incapacity, and in addition (in regard to residence)

is on the last day of the qualifying period occupying as owner or tenant any land or premises in the local government area and has continued during the whole of the qualifying period in such occupation. For the purpose of this section, if a man inhabits a dwelling house as a servant or employee, and if the dwelling house is not inhabited by his employer, he shall be held to be a tenant. Further, any person who occupies unfurnished room or rooms as a lodger is also held to be a tenant.

The qualifying period under Section 6 of the Act is the six months ending either the 15th January or the 15th July.

Women.—Under Section 4 of the Act a woman is entitled to be registered as an elector if she is 30 years of age and otherwise where she would be entitled to be registered if she were a man. In addition, a woman is entitled to be registered if she is the wife of a man who is registered in respect of premises where they both reside.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILS.

Councils are elected by persons having the above franchise for all local government units except parishes having a population of less than 300, in which cases the Parish Meeting governs; but this Meeting may resolve to elect a Council if the population is over 100, and if the population is under 100 may obtain the consent of the County Council to elect.

Qualifications of Councillors.—In general local government electors are qualified to stand as councillors, and also any owner of property held by freehold, leasehold, or other tenure without prejudice to any other occupation. Under the County and Borough Councils (Qualifications) Act, 1914, a man or woman is qualified to be a councillor or alderman if he, or she, has resided within the area during the whole of the twelve months before the election.

Disqualifications.—No one may be elected or may be a councillor while he is an elective auditor, or holds any office of profit under the Council except that of mayor or sheriff, or if he has any share or interest directly or indirectly in a contract with the Council. This latter provision, however, does not apply if the contract relates to land, loans, newspapers, nor to shareholders in limited companies and industrial and

provident societies. Persons in holy orders and regular ministers of dissenting congregations are also disqualified. (For further details see page 52.)

Aldermen.—The Council elects aldermen from its own members or among persons qualified to be councillors. They hold office for six years. One half retire every three years. The mayor of a borough is elected by councillors and aldermen from persons qualified to be councillors. The mayor acts as chairman for all council meetings, and is a justice of the peace.

BOROUGH COUNCILS.

The powers of Borough Councils are defined mainly by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882; but boroughs differ in kind. Some ancient boroughs have powers similar to those of county councils, with their own court of quarter sessions. County Boroughs were created by the Local Government Act, 1888. In some of these there are special courts such as the Court of Passage at Liverpool, and the Tolzey Court at Bristol.

Most large boroughs maintain their own police forces independently of the county, which are controlled by a Watch Committee over which the Council has practically no power except in regard to finance.

There are now 253 non-county boroughs, which form a separate class with restricted powers, for such powers as those in regard to lunatic asylums, contagious diseases, &c., within their areas belong to County Councils.

Bye-Laws.—All bye-laws of Borough Councils on order and good government must be passed by a two-thirds majority and may be disallowed by the Privy Council. The Council may build offices for its work; but for selling land or for borrowing money it must have the approval of the Ministry of Health.

Public Health.—Under the Public Health Acts, 1875, &c., borough councils act as sanitary authorities and appoint a medical officer of health and sanitary inspectors, whose appointments are governed by the Public Health (Officers) Act, 1921. The council must enforce house sanitation and may remove house refuse, or impose this as a duty on occupiers. There are numerous other powers under Public Health Acts.

A Maternity and Child Welfare Committee must be appointed under the 1918 Act. The powers of the Council with regard to Education and Housing are dealt with under those headings.

(See "*Arnold's Laws of Municipal Corporation*," 5th Edition, 1910. Pub. Butterworth & Co. £2 2s. 0d.)

COUNTY COUNCILS.

The powers of County Councils rest mainly upon the Local Government Act, 1888, which also transferred some of the administrative duties of Quarter Sessions to the new Councils. County Councils make and levy the county rates, control police jointly with the Justice of the Peace for the County, maintain main roads, asylums, reformatories, and industrial schools. The Councils have large powers regarding public health, the regulation of weights and measures in shops, and of hours of labour. They have also powers in regard to subsidiary local authorities within their area, and are under the general supervision of the Ministry of Health particularly in regard to the audit of their accounts.

The powers and duties of Councils in regard to Education are now codified under the Education Act, 1921 (see Section on Education).

(See *the Local Government Act, 1888*, 3rd Edition Macmorran & Dill.—published in 1898. Butterworth. £2; cash 32s. 9d.).

Committees of Councils.—In a municipal council a Watch Committee, Education Committee, and Old Age Pensions Committee are required by statute. Similarly, in a county council the Statutory Committees are those for Finance (Local Government Act, 1888), Education (Education Act, 1902), Distress (Unemployed Workmen's Act, 1905), Small Holdings (Small Holdings Act, 1908), Local Pensions (Old Age Pensions Act, 1920, &c.), Public Health and Housing (Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909), Shops (Shops Act, 1913), Maternity and Child Welfare (M. & C.W. Act, 1918), Land Drainage (L.D. Act, 1918), Agriculture (Ministry of Agriculture Act, 1919). Standing Committees are also appointed for special functions. Joint Committees with other authorities are also appointed, of which the most important is the Standing Joint Committee of the County Council and

Justices of the Peace appointed to serve by Quarter Sessions. This Committee has control of the police and of public property of the county.

URBAN DISTRICT COUNCILS.

The Local Government Act, 1894, is the chief Act in this matter. Urban District Councils are the authorities for public health and highways for urban districts within counties. Most of their duties are with respect to sanitation, drainage and highways other than main roads when they choose to take over these highways. If the population is 20,000 the U.D.C. has power under the Old Age Pensions, Insurance, Shops Acts, and Education Acts, so far as these relate to elementary education. Under the 1922 Allotment Act an U.D.C. with a population of 10,000 or more must appoint an Allotment Committee.

(See the *Local Government Act, 1894* Macmorran & Dill 4th Edition, published 1907 Butterworth, 27s. 6d.)

RURAL DISTRICT COUNCILS.

The Local Government Act, 1894, transformed the Rural sanitary authorities of the Public Health Act, 1875, into Councils, and also made the members of the Rural District Council necessarily Poor Law Guardians. Rural Districts may become Urban by Order of the County Council confirmed by the Minister of Health. The functions of R.D.C.'s relate mainly to matters of public health. Additional powers may be granted to a Rural District Council by the Minister of Health. These Councils are also highway authorities.

PARISH COUNCILS.

The governing statute is the Local Government Act, 1894. The Parish Council appoints the Overseers for the parish; it is not a sanitary authority, but may act as such by arrangement with the Rural District Council. It may maintain and repair footpaths.

The Parish Councils are elected by Parish Meetings, assemblies of all the local government electors, but where the

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number in the parish is less than 100 no Council is elected, and if the number is between 100 and 300 the Council may but need not be elected.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE PRINCIPAL LOCAL AUTHORITIES OUTSIDE LONDON.

The following official summary is given in the Minutes of Evidence of the Royal Commission on Local Government, Appendix 6, which is here reprinted by permission of the Controller of the Stationery Office:—

NOTES: In some cases, the powers are available only where the statutory enactments conferring them have been put in force by adoption by the L.A. or P.M., or by an Order of the M. of H. or C.C.

* Signifies an obligatory function of the L.A. concerned.

** Signifies a discretionary power which may, however, be enforced by a Government Department.

The limits of population in this statement refer to present population in a few instances only, in other cases the population is determined by the last Census or by that of 1881 or 1901.

For convenience of arrangement, the powers and duties of the minor Authorities are stated first

PARISH MEETINGS.

Where there is no P.C. :—*Appointment of overseer. Appointment and revocation of appointment of assistant overseer. *Provision of allotments. *Administration of non-ecclesiastical parochial charities. Veto on the stopping or diversion of public rights of way and the declaring of highways to be unnecessary. Power to apply for Provisional Order authorising construction of tramways. Power to make representations as to default of R.D.C. under the Housing Acts or with reference to water supply or sewerage, or any provisions of the P.H. Acts which it is the duty of that Council to enforce, or to the maintenance and repair of a highway. Power to petition M. of H. against confirmation of Order of C.C. altering boundary of Parish. Undertaking to pay loss on establishment of postal facilities. Any other P.C. powers conferred by the C.C.

Where there is a P.C. (*i.e.*, in all rural parishes with a population of over 300 and in those with a population between 100 and 300, if the P.M. so resolves, and in those with a population under 100, if the P.M. so resolves and the C.C. consents) :—

*Election of P.C. Consent to proposal involving a rate above 3d. in the £ for any financial year or expenditure involving a loan. Adoption of Adoptive Acts, for lighting and for establishing public bathing places, burial grounds, recreation grounds, public libraries and museums (whether there is or is not a P.C.). Consent to sale or exchange of land vested in P.C.

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PARISH COUNCILS.

All powers and duties of a P.M. where there is no P.C., and, in addition :—Provision of land and buildings for public offices and meetings. Maintenance and repair of public footpaths, not being footpaths at the side of a public road. Acquisition of rights of way. Acquisition of land for open spaces, recreation grounds and public walks. Powers exercisable by Urban Authorities under P.H. Acts with respect to recreation grounds, village greens, open spaces or public walks. Power to accept and hold gifts of property. Limited powers as to utilising wells, &c. Dealing with offensive ponds and ditches. Provision of fire engines and fire escapes. Execution of Adoptive Acts, if adopted by P.M. Power to apply for urban powers to be conferred on R.D.C. in respect of parish or part of parish. Contributing, with consent of M. of H., to expenses of small Harbour Authority.

RURAL DISTRICT COUNCILS.

Public Health.

*Inspection of district for detection and abatement of nuisances. *Securing the proper sanitary condition of all premises. *Sewerage. **Removal of house refuse. **Cleansing of earth closets, privies, ash-pits, and cesspools. Provision of hospitals. *Notification and prevention of infectious diseases. Provision of nurses for cases of infectious disease outside hospitals. Treatment of persons suffering from tuberculosis (concurrently with C.C.). *Enforcement of statutory provisions prohibiting sale of tuberculous milk. *Notification of births. Maternity and child welfare (concurrently with C.C.). Cleansing, &c., of verminous persons. **Provision of mortuaries and cemeteries. Provision of crematoria. Prevention of pollution of rivers (concurrently with C.C.). Inspection of foods for human consumption. *Registration of dairies, cowsheds, and milkshops. *Control of retail bakehouses. *Inspection and regulation of canal boats. *Enforcement of Rag Flock Act, 1911. Byelaws as to cleansing of ash-pits and footways, removal of house refuse, tents, vans and sheds and fruit-pickers. Byelaws as to structure of walls and foundations of new buildings for purposes of health, structure of floors, height of rooms and keeping of w.c.'s supplied with sufficient water for flushing.

Housing.

*Provision of houses for working classes. *Closing or demolition of unfit houses. Power to require owners to put working-class houses into habitable condition. **Small schemes for reconstruction of unhealthy areas. Removal of obstructive buildings. *Prevention of overcrowding. *Registration, inspection and regulation of common lodging-houses. **Byelaws as to houses let in lodgings. Power to make advances under Small Dwellings Acquisition Acts (subject to consent of C.C. if population under 10,000).

Roads, Town Planning, and Open Spaces.

*Maintenance and repair of public roads, other than main roads, and of public bridges, not county bridges. Construction of new roads if grant made by Ministry of Transport. *Protection of rights of way and roadside wastes. Power to prepare a town planning scheme. Provision and maintenance of open spaces (concurrently with C.C. and P.C.). Acquisition, regulation and management of common

Water Supply.

*Securing that every dwelling house has water supply available within a reasonable distance. Provision of water supply.

Miscellaneous.

*Registration of common lodging-houses and workshops. *Licensing emigrant runners, game dealers, gang-masters, knackers' yards, passage brokers, pawnbrokers, petroleum hawkers, steam whistles. Power (subject to authorisation by Electricity Commissioners and Ministry of Transport) to supply electricity and (if not less than 50,000 population) to give financial assistance to Joint Electricity Authorities with consent of M. of H. Inspection of electric lighting and testing of gas. *Securing better provision for prevention of fire and means of escape where cinematograph films stored or used. Acquisition of ferries (concurrently with C.C.). Power to apply for Light Railway Order, to contribute to expenses of small Harbour Authority, and to make or oppose applications to Railway and Canal Commission and Rates Tribunal with respect to railway services, &c. (concurrently with C.C.). Power to establish superannuation fund for officers or servants. Undertaking to pay loss on postal facilities.

Note - The M. of H. may confer upon a R.D.C. any powers possessed by an U.D.C. under the P.H. Acts.

URBAN DISTRICT COUNCILS.

All the powers and duties of a R.D.C., with the exception of the obligation relating to water supply, and, in addition:—

Public Health.

Byelaws as to new streets and buildings, including approval of building plans. Byelaws as to keeping of animals, drains, slaughter-houses, nuisances from snow, rubbish, &c. Baths and washhouses. Sanitary conveniences. Ambulance service. Supervision of offensive trades.

Housing.

Improvement of unhealthy areas.

Roads and Open Spaces.

Making up and taking over of private streets. Construction and improvement of streets. Power to claim to maintain main roads (see under C.C.'s). **Cleansing of streets. Lighting and watering of streets. Provision of public walks and pleasure grounds.

Miscellaneous.

*Provision of allotments or (if 10,000 population or upwards) allotment gardens. Power to promote and assist co-operative societies for provision of small holdings or allotments. Power to supply or aid supply of higher education (concurrently with C.C.). Provision, &c., of libraries, museums, gymnasiums, &c. Provision of market places and slaughter-houses. Provision of fire engines, &c. Provision of public telephone system. Execution of Burial Acts (where D.C. are a Burial Board). Byelaws as to bathing, hackney carriages, markets, omnibuses. Power to apply for Provisional Order authorising construction of tramways. Licensing of tramway carriages and employees,

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boats and boatmen. Advertising health resorts and watering places. Establishment and maintenance of aerodromes (concurrently with C.C.) Appointment of gas examiners. *Registration of war charities. *Enforcement of Fabric (Misdescription) Act, 1913. Promotion of and opposition to Bills in Parliament.

Also, if over 10,000 population

Advertisement regulations. Taking over by agreement powers of Commissioners of Customs and Excise with respect to entertainments and entertainment duty.

Also, if 20,000 population or over

*Elementary Education

The powers and duties of a L.A. for elementary education include: *Medical inspection and treatment. *Care of defective and epileptic children. Provision of meals. Cleansing of verminous children. Social and physical training. Power to prosecute for cruelty to child. Power to make byelaws regulating the employment of children and street trading by children and young persons. Power to grant licences for children to take part in entertainments. Provision of industrial schools.

*Enforcement of Shops Acts regarding hours of employment for young persons and seats for shop assistants. Power to fix weekly half-holiday for shops and (subject to Home Secretary) closing hours. *Appointment of Old Age Pensions Committee. *Town Planning scheme.

Also, if 50,000 population or over

Power to give financial assistance to Joint Electricity Authorities, with consent of M. of H.

COUNCILS OF NON-COUNTY BOROUGHES

All the powers and duties possessed by U.D.C.'s, which are not subject to a limit of population, and, in addition:

Power to vote salary to Mayor. Right to grant of arms. Byelaws for "good rule and government". *Enforcement of Shops Acts. Fixing of weekly half-holiday and closing hours for shops. Care of ancient monuments and regulation of advertisements. Acquisition of land for military purposes. Establishment and maintenance of inebriates' retreats. Power to apply to be made sea-fisheries district. Entertainment duty, &c., as for U.D.C.'s over 10,000 population. Exemption of certain vehicles from carrying lights at night.

Also, if 10,000 population or over

*Elementary education. *Police (but no new force unless 20,000 population). *Verification, &c., of weights and measures (if Quarter Sessions Borough, or Council so resolves). Power to enforce Sale of Tea Act (where Council is L.A. for Weights and Measures Acts). *Diseases of animals. **Prevention of damage to crops by destructive insects. *Inspection under Explosives Act. *Licences for sale of poisons for agricultural purposes and gunpowder stores. Byelaws respecting use of locomotives on highways and bridges. Power to apply for Order limiting speed of motor cars. *Appointment of

Coroner (if Quarter Sessions Borough). *Enforcement of Sale of Food and Drugs Acts and of statutory provisions requiring licences for the sale of milk under special designations and prohibiting the addition of colouring matter, &c (if Quarter Sessions Borough or having separate police force).

Also, if 20,000 population or over.

*Appointment of Old Age Pensions Committee. *Town planning scheme. Power to apply for establishment of Sea Fisheries District.

Also, if 50,000 population or over.

Power to apply for C.B. powers. Power to give financial assistance to Joint Electricity Authorities, with consent of M. of H.

Also, if Parliamentary Borough.

*Fixing of polling places and provision of polling stations.

COUNTY COUNCILS.

The powers and duties of a C.C. set out below are, except where otherwise stated, exercised over the whole of the "Administrative County" *i.e.*, the geographical County, with the exception of the area of the C.B.'s, if any, situated within it)

Roads.

Maintenance and repair of main roads. Improvement, &c., of main roads and declaring roads to be main roads. Construction of new roads if grant made by Ministry of Transport or by agreement with other Authorities. Power to contribute towards cost of maintenance and improvement, &c., of highways not main roads. Byelaws as to construction of wheels and tyres of wagons, &c., used on highways, erection of gates opening on highways, use of "light locomotives" on any specified bridge, and (except in Boroughs over 10,000 population) regulating the use on particular highways or bridges of locomotives other than "light locomotives"

Bridges.

*Maintenance and repair of county bridges. Power to erect new bridges.

Education.

A. *Higher.* The powers and duties of a L.E.A. for higher education include:—(a) Medical inspection and treatment in secondary schools, &c. (b) Power to assist as to choice of employment. (c) Training of teachers. (d) Supply of any technical instruction or education not given at a public elementary school. (e) Provision of scholarships. (f) Aiding of research by scholars or teachers.

B. *Elementary* (except in Borough over 10,000 and U.D. over 20,000 population, according to the Census of 1901).

C. *Reformatory Schools.*

Lunacy and Mental Deficiency.

*Provision and maintenance of asylums and institutions.

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Public Health.

*Enforcement of Sale of Food and Drugs Acts and of statutory provisions relating to the sale of milk (except in Quarter Sessions Boroughs over 10,000 population and Boroughs having a separate police force). *Diseases of animals (except in Borough of 10,000 or over). *Prevention of river pollution (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and R.D.C.). *Supervision of midwives. Notification of births (where adopted before 1915). Maternity and child welfare (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and R.D.C.). Provision of institutions for tuberculosis. Treatment of venereal diseases. Establishment of Hospital Districts for infectious diseases. Report by County M.O.H. on general conditions throughout the county.

Agriculture.

**Provision of small holdings. Power to advance money to tenants of small holdings. Power to assist co-operative societies for small holdings or allotments (concurrently with B.C. and U.D.C.). Certain powers as to allotments (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and P.C.). *Analysis of fertilisers and feeding stuffs. **Prevention of damage to crops by destructive insects (except in Boroughs over 10,000 population).

Registration and Licences.

*Registration of and issue of licences for motor cars and locomotives. *Licensing of gunpowder stores and sale of poisons for agriculture or horticulture (except in Boroughs over 10,000 population), theatres, cinematograph premises and (within 10 miles of Charing Cross) race-courses. *Collection of licence duties in respect of armorial bearings, carriages, dogs, game, guns and male servants. *Registration of war charities.

Appointments.

*Coroner. *Half the Standing Joint Committee for the purpose of police, the other half being appointed by Quarter Sessions. *Local Committee for Old Age Pensions (except for Borough and U.D. with 20,000 population or over). *One-fifth of members of Insurance Committee.

Default Powers.

*Allotments—on default of B.C., U.D.C. or P.C. Maintenance or repair of highway—on default of U.D.C. or R.D.C. Rights of way and roadside wastes—on default of R.D.C. Sewerage, water supply or any provisions of P.H. Acts—on default of R.D.C. and complaint by P.C. Provision of houses or improvement schemes—on default of L.A., if empowered by M. of H. Closing or demolition orders—on default of R.D.C. Town planning—on default of B.C. or U.D.C. under 20,000 population, or of R.D.C., if empowered by M. of H. Milk and Dairies—on default of D.C., if empowered by M. of H.

Alteration of Districts, &c.

As respects any U.D. (not Borough) or R.D. or Parish, power, after inquiry, (a) to alter or define boundary. (b) To divide or unite with other district or parish. (c) To convert R.D. into U.D., or U.D. into

R.D., or transfer from one district to another, or form new Urban or Rural Districts. (d) To divide U.D. into wards. (e) To alter wards or number of members of D.C.

Public Amenities

Provision of open spaces and of public walks and pleasure grounds or contribution towards their expense (concurrently with other L.A.'s). Public Libraries (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and P.C.). Care of ancient monuments (concurrently with B.C.). Advertisement regulation (except in U.D. over 10,000 population and Borough).

Miscellaneous.

*Verification, &c., of weights and measures and power to enforce Sale of Tea Act (except in Boroughs over 10,000 population). *Inspection under Explosives Act (except in Boroughs over 10,000 population). *Duties and powers under Shops Acts (except in U.D. of 20,000 or over, and Borough). *Destruction of rats and mice. *Payment of compensation for damage by riot. *Fixing of polling places and provision of polling stations (except in Parliamentary Borough). *Enforcement of Fabric (Misdescription) Act, 1913, in rural areas. Byelaws for "good rule and government" (excluding Boroughs). Welfare of blind persons. *Instituting proceedings for safety of children at entertainments. Protection of fisheries and wild birds. Consent to loans by, and lending money to Parish Councils. Provision of houses for employees. Advances under the Small Dwellings Acquisition Acts (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and R.D.C.). Assistance to co-operative building societies. Establishment and maintenance of inmates' retreats (concurrently with B.C.). Acquisition of land for military purposes (concurrently with B.C.). Establishment of aerodromes (concurrently with B.C. and U.D.C.). Acquisition of ferries (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and R.D.C.). Aiding emigration. Inspection of gas meters (except in certain Boroughs). Power (if not less than 50,000 population) to give financial assistance to Joint Electricity Authorities, subject (except in case of L.C.C.) to the consent of the M. of H. Power to apply for Light Railway Order, and to make or oppose applications to Railway and Canal Commission and Rates Tribunal with respect to railway services, &c. (concurrently with B.C., U.D.C. and R.D.C.). Power by arrangement to take over powers of Commissioners of Customs and Excise with respect to entertainments and entertainment duty. Promotion of and opposition to Bills in Parliament (concurrently with T.C. and U.D.C.). Power to establish superannuation fund for officers or servants. Power to apply for establishment of Sea Fisheries District (concurrently with T.C.s with population of 20,000 or over). Power to apply to M. of H. for Order investing R.D.C. with urban powers under P.H. Act, 1875 (concurrently with R.D.C. and P.C.).

COUNTY BOROUGH COUNCILS.

All powers and duties of Councils of Non-County Boroughs and also of C.C.'s, except such as are concerned with the relation between C.C.'s on the one hand and the Councils of Non-County Boroughs, U.D.'s, R.D.'s, and Parishes on the other (*e.g.*, default powers), and except the power to assist co-operative building societies.

BOARDS OF GUARDIANS.

*Poor Law. *Assessment and valuation. *Registration of births, deaths and marriages. *Vaccination. *Infant life protection.

NOTES.—1. Certain local government powers and duties are still possessed by bodies other than L.A.'s, e.g., liquor licensing and consent to the stopping up or diversion of a highway, which are in the hands of justices with power of appeal to Quarter Sessions. Quarter Sessions are also responsible for the licensing of private asylums and the appointment of visitors of private asylums and prisons; and may appoint gas examiners in certain cases.

Justices of the Peace are responsible for the appointment of Overseers in an urban parish, on the nomination of the Vestry, where the power has not been transferred to the Borough or U.D.C.

Justices in Petty Sessions may grant licences for cinematograph exhibitions, where power is delegated to them by C.C. or C.B.C.

The granting of music or dancing licences is a duty of the Licensing Justices, where Part IV. of the P.H. Acts Amendment Act, 1890, has been adopted by the Urban Authority.

The licensing of pedlars, hawkers, and chimney sweeps employing apprentices is in the hands of the police.

2. "Nuisances," with which the Local Sanitary Authorities (*i.e.*, unless otherwise stated, T.C.'s, U.D.C.'s and R.D.C.'s) are entitled to deal, include nuisances arising from—Accumulations or deposits. Animals. Barbed Wire (nuisance to highway)—Highway Authorities. Damp from gutters, &c., or deposit of materials causing dampness (where power is given by Order). Ditches, pools, gutters, &c. Drains. Earth-closets, water-closets, cesspools, privies, urinals, ashpits. Factories, workshops or workplaces. Obstructions, &c., in streets—(not R.D.C.). Offensive trades—(not R.D.C.). Overcrowding. Overflow from cesspools, &c.—(not R.D.C.). Premises in a state injurious to health. Smoke. Snow, filth, ashes, &c.—(not R.D.C.). Swine keeping in dwelling houses—(not R.D.C.). Tents, vans, &c. Unfenced coal shafts and quarries. Waste water in dwelling house—(not R.D.C.). Water cistern (where power is given by Order).

L.A.'s can deal with some of the above-mentioned nuisances by byelaws authorised for various specific purposes, under the P.H. Acts or other Acts, subject to confirmation by the M. of H. A T.C. may deal with "nuisances not already punishable in a summary manner by virtue of any Act in force throughout the Borough" by byelaws under § 23 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882. The like power was given to C.C.'s by the L.G. Act, 1888. These byelaws also require the Minister's confirmation, and are to be distinguished from "good rule and government" byelaws under the same section of the Act of 1882 also extended to Counties in 1888, which have to be submitted to the Secretary of State.

3. Byelaws for "good rule and government" (made by T.C.'s or C.C.'s) may deal with such matters as Advertising vehicles and bills, defacing pavements, &c. Bulls, &c., in streets. Fighting in streets. Indecent

bathing and shows, and nuisances contrary to public decency. Loitering at church doors. Music near houses, churches or hospitals. Noisy animals and birds. Noisy instruments, singing or noises by excursionists. Offensive and threatening language. Roundabouts, swings, and shooting galleries. Search and flash lights in streets. Spitting in public places, &c. Touting or noisy hawking. Violent behaviour on school premises. Waste paper, refuse, broken glass, &c., in streets.

LONDON GOVERNMENT.

The following are the directly elected Local Authorities for the County of London :—

- The London County Council.
- The City of London Corporation.
- 28 Metropolitan Borough Councils.
- 28 Boards of Guardians.

There are also a number of *ad hoc* Central Authorities in London, the most important of which are :—

- The Metropolitan Asylums Board.
- The Metropolitan Water Board.
- The Port of London Authority.
- The Thames Conservancy.
- The Lee Conservancy.

In addition there is the Metropolitan Police which, although a charge on the rates, is under the control of the Home Secretary.

London County Council.

The powers of the London County Council include the management of county buildings, works and property; the granting of music and dancing licences (with a saving for the jurisdiction of the Lord Chamberlain); the provision and maintenance of pauper lunatic asylums, mental hospitals, reformatories and industrial schools, bridges and roads repairable with bridges; the execution of the Acts relating to destructive insects, and weights and measures.

Other important powers and duties of the L.C.C. are those relating to main drainage, new streets and street improvements, buildings and building lines, maintenance of the Thames bridges and embankments, four tunnels under the Thames and a free ferry at Woolwich. It maintains 115 parks and open spaces in and near London. The L.C.C. tramway undertaking is the largest in Great Britain, being nearly

160 miles long. The Council maintains the London Fire Brigade with a uniformed staff of nearly 2,000, 66 stations and 87 motor fire engines, and also the London Ambulance Service with seven stations and 12 ambulances.

Another important power of the L.C.C. is the provision of artisans' dwellings, and it had up to 1923 erected 16,626 tenements with accommodation for more than 100,000 persons, while 2,100 other tenements were then in hand or authorised. It has already cleared 40 acres of slums and is now clearing another 38 acres.

The County Council has also, subject to certain exceptions, the powers and duties of County Councils generally, but it has no power, directly or indirectly, over the Metropolitan Police.

It maintains the tremendous main sewerage system of London with 370 miles of sewers which deal each year with 100,000 million gallons of sewage. It has six steamers to deposit sewage out at sea.

Under the Education (London) Act, 1903, the L.C.C. became the local education authority for the whole Administrative County of London, and their powers and duties are exercised and performed through their statutory Education Committee.

The L.C.C. is the principal health authority for the County of London, although their powers are restricted in the area of the City of London. Some health services are administered directly by the L.C.C.; others are administered by the Borough Councils and the City Corporation.

City of London Corporation.

The Common Council consists of the Lord Mayor, nominated by votes of the City Guilds and elected by the Court of Aldermen, 25 aldermen and 206 common council men, re-elected annually by the ratepayers. The Corporation has most of the functions of a County Council, except in regard to elementary education. It is a public health authority, and is Port Sanitary Authority for the whole of the Port of London. It administers various educational trusts and almshouses, and it has provided and maintains Epping Forest, West Ham Park and some other open spaces. The Corporation is the market authority for all London. It maintains its own police court

for the city of London, but since 1919 the Government has contributed. In some matters the jurisdiction of the L.C.C. does not pass beyond the boundaries of the City of London. (See the Municipal Year Book, 1924, p. 227).

Metropolitan Borough Councils.

The following are some of the varied powers of the Metropolitan Borough Councils :—

Public Assistance.—Small dwellings acquisition.

Health Services.—Bakehouses inspection, provision and management of baths and washhouses, provision for burials, local drainage and public conveniences, provision of hospitals, small scale housing, clearance of small insanitary areas, closing of overcrowded and insanitary houses, appointment of medical officers and sanitary inspectors, control of offensive trades, nurseries and dairies, refuse removal, control of workshops *re* sanitation, &c. Also Maternity and Child Welfare administration. Powers to make extensive schemes with approval of Ministry of Health.

Regulative Services.—Administration of Food and Drugs Act, prevention of smoke nuisance, regulation of sky signs, house demolition, timber stacking, licensing of wooden structures, &c.

Protective Services.—Provision of mortuaries and post-mortem rooms.

Public Amenities.—Provision and maintenance of small parks and open spaces, public libraries, art galleries, museums, art and science schools.

Education.—Appointment to bodies of managers of public elementary schools.

Transit and Exchange Services.—Provision, &c., of minor bridges. Making, paving, cleansing, lighting streets and minor improvements. Veto on construction of tramways.

Supply Services.—Electricity supply (if authorised).

Over most of the services the L.C.C. exercises certain powers of suspension.

Other Bodies.

The functions of Guardians in London do not materially differ from those of Guardians elsewhere; but the existence of the Metropolitan Asylums Board and the operation of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund are features peculiar to the Metropolitan area.

The Asylums Board consists of 73 members of which 55 are elected for three years by the various Metropolitan Boards of Guardians, and 18 are nominated by the Minister of Health. The powers and duties of the Board are concerned not only with the Poor Law but also with epidemic diseases, the care of imbeciles and the treatment of tuberculosis. It may provide hospitals for persons suffering from infectious diseases and ambulances for conveying such persons to their hospitals.

The Metropolitan Water Board is composed of 66 members appointed by various authorities, and its duty is to supply water within an area of about 530 square miles.

The Port of London Authority consists of 18 so-called elected members, not elected by the people, but by payers of dues, wharfingers, &c., and 10 members appointed by the Admiralty, the Minister of Transport, the L.C.C., the City Corporation and Trinity House. Its duties, in short, are to take such steps as they consider necessary for the improvement of the Thames within the Port and the accommodation and facilities in the Port.

The Lea Conservancy is composed of 15 persons appointed by other authorities, and its duties are the prevention of pollution in the River Lea and its tributaries, the general control of the Lea, navigation, and the control of fisheries in these streams. Its jurisdiction extends 70 miles into Bedfordshire. The Thames Conservancy has similar powers over the Thames above Teddington.

There are several other smaller authorities of varying importance, such as School Managers, the Central (Unemployed) Body for London; a London Old Age Pensions Committee with 14 local Sub-Committees; and an Insurance Committee for the County of London.

Finance.

The collection of rates in the Administrative County of London is done by the Borough Councils and the City Cor-
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poration, the powers and duties of parish overseers having been transferred to them.

In the Boroughs the general rate and the poor rate are levied together as one rate. Precepts are served on the Borough Councils and the City Corporation by the County Council, the Metropolitan Police, the Central (Unemployed) Body, the Metropolitan Water Board, and the Guardians.

The County Council's revenue comes from rates, Exchequer contributions and grants, interest on loans to Borough Councils, rents, profits from county undertakings, and certain miscellaneous sources. The L.C.C. may make loans to local authorities in the County and, with certain exceptions, is the sanctionary authority for loans contracted by Borough Councils in the exercise of their powers.

There is a measure of rates equalisation in operation, but many real grievances are left untouched by this. For instance, the following are some typical instances of the variations in the product of a penny rate in London Boroughs :—

	£		£
City of London	25,855	Poplar	3,771
Westminster ..	32,058	Bethnal Green..	2,263
Kensington ..	10,739	Deptford ..	2,582
Wandsworth ..	9,044	Woolwich ..	3,482

So that Westminster can spend £32,000 and raise the money by a penny rate. If Poplar spends the same amount it has to levy a rate of over 8d. This explains to a large extent why rates in Poplar are so much higher than those in Westminster.

Boards of Guardians include in their precepts to the Borough Councils the precepts issued to themselves by the Metropolitan Asylums Board. The operations of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, as extended by recent legislation, has the effect of equalising a large proportion of the expenses of the various Unions in the County, but there is still room for improvement in this respect.

JUSTICES OF THE PEACE.**COUNTY JUSTICES.**

The office of Justice of the Peace dates from the 14th century or earlier. High Officers of State, such as the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, the other Judges in their own courts, and Sheriffs within their own counties were among those entrusted with the duty of maintaining the peace as an incident to their offices.

Prior to the year 1327 those who were Keepers of the Peace, otherwise than by virtue of their office "either claimed that power by prescription, or were bound to exercise it by the tenure of their lands; or, lastly, were chosen by the freeholders in full county court before the Sheriff." But in that year popular election of Keepers of the Peace was superseded by the King's Commission. In 1344, by the Statute 18 Edward III., St. 2, c. 2, it was definitely enacted that the Keepers of the Peace were to be appointed by the King's Commission; and in 1360 the Statute 34 Edward III., c. 1, gave the Keepers of the Peace the power of trying felonies, "and then they acquired the more honourable appellation of Justices." The Statute 2, Henry V. st. 2, c. 1, enacted that Justices of the Peace must be resident in their several counties, but apart from this no qualifications for appointment to the office, except general directions that they should be men "of the best reputation and most worthy men in the county," or "of the most sufficient knights, esquires, and gentlemen of the law," were prescribed by the Statutes until the 18 Henry VI., c. 11, which enacted that no Justice should be put on the Commission if he had not lands to the value of £20 per annum. This property qualification was altered by various Statutes until, in 1906, it was altogether abolished by the Statute 6 Ed. VII., c. 16.

Commissions of the Peace.—Every County in England and Wales has a separate Commission of the Peace. Yorkshire has three, one each for the North, East and West Ridings; Lincoln also has three, one for the Parts of Lindsey, another for the Parts of Kesteven, and the third for the Parts of Holland. The Isle of Ely, the (Soke/Liberty) of Peterborough, the Liberty of the Cinque Ports, the Liberty of Ripon also have Commissions somewhat analogous to County Commissions.

Borough Justices.—Many of the boroughs in former times enjoyed under ancient charters or by prescription the right of appointing their own Justices and holding Courts of Quarter Sessions. Section 5 of the Statute of 27 Henry VIII. expressly provided that "all cities, boroughes and townes corporate within this realme which have libertie power and auctoritie to have justices of peace or justices of gaole delyverey still have and enjoy thir liberties and auctorities in that behalff after such like manner as they have ben accustomed, without any alteracion by occasion of this Acte; any thing in this Acte or in any article therein conteyned to the contrarie thereof notwithstanding." Most of these ancient privileges were abolished by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1835, and the remainder disappeared under the Municipal Corporations Act, 1883. But the Act of 1835 provided that the Crown, on the petition of the council of the borough, might grant to any borough a separate Commission of the Peace, and also a separate Court of Quarter Sessions. There are 222 boroughs which have separate Commissions of the Peace.

APPOINTMENT.

The Lord Chancellor appoints all Justices of the Peace (except ex-officio Justices) in England (excluding Lancashire, the City of London, and the Liberty of Romney Marsh), in Wales, and in Scotland.

Ex-Officio Justices.—The Municipal Corporations Act, 1835, provided that the Mayor of every Municipal Borough should be an ex-officio Magistrate in the Borough during his year of office and for the succeeding year. This provision was continued by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882. By the Local Government Acts, 1888 and 1894, the Chairmen of County Councils and of District Councils are also Justices of the Peace during their term of office.

Removal.—A Justice holds office during pleasure, and any Justice appointed by the Lord Chancellor may be removed from office by the direction of the Lord Chancellor in his absolute discretion.

Advisory Committees.—The Report of the Royal Commission on the Selection of Justices of the Peace (Cd. 5250) recommended that in every County and in every Borough having a separate Commission of the Peace Justices' Com-

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mittees should be appointed by the Lord Chancellor, and that the Lord Lieutenants should be members of the County Committees. The Royal Commission recommended that in constituting these committees "regard should primarily be had to the importance of giving them a representative character, so as to secure the expression on them of different views and currents of public opinion."

Advisory Committees have been constituted in every county in England and Wales and Scotland (except Sutherlandshire), and in 211 boroughs having separate Commissions. The duties of such Committees are to advise the Lord Chancellor on the following subjects:—

- 1 The number of Justices taking active share in the discharge of magisterial duty in each Petty Sessional Division, or Borough, as the case may be, and the number of Justices required for the due discharge of such duties
- 2 The necessity, if it exists, for appointing additional Justices
- 3 The desirability of calling upon Justices in certain cases to resign on account of non-attendance.
- 4 If they decide that additional Justices are required, their duty is to submit to the Lord Chancellor the names of the persons whom they recommend.

If persons who wish to suggest names to the Committee, but have difficulty in communicating with the Committee, send them to the Lord Chancellor direct, he usually refers the names to the Committee for consideration. The Committee, however, are not bound to take these names only into consideration; they may consider names received from any source. The persons whose names the Committee submit to the Lord Chancellor are to be chosen in accordance with the principles laid down in the Report of the Royal Commission.

SESSIONS OF JUSTICES OF THE PEACE.

The Sessions of Justices of the Peace are of two kinds: (1) General Sessions and General Quarter Sessions; and (2) Petty Sessions and Special Sessions. General Quarter Sessions are those which are held in the four quarters of the year in pursuance of the Statute of 2 Henry V., c. 4, and later

Acts, and General Sessions are other Sessions held at any other time for the general execution of the authority of Justices of the Peace which, by the above-mentioned Statute, they are authorised to hold oftener than at the times therein specified. The term Petty Sessions is given to a Session of two or more Justices meeting at regular intervals or fixed times for the purpose of attending to various matters which by Statute they are required to do out of Quarter Sessions. Special Sessions is the name given to Petty Sessions held to transact certain business of which special notice has to be given beforehand. Whereas the Court of Quarter Sessions is a Court of Sessions of the Peace for the whole county, the jurisdiction of Petty Sessions is in practice confined to the particular Petty Sessional division, and though the Justices are Justices of the Peace for the whole county, by custom they attend only the Petty Sessions of the division to which they are attached.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

The power, office, and duties of a Justice of the Peace depend on his commission and on the several Statutes which have created objects of his jurisdiction. His primary duty is to keep the peace. This term "covers such matters as swearing in members of the county and borough police forces, and appointing special constables when a disturbance of the peace is likely to occur; taking necessary measures to suppress actual riot; taking sureties for good behaviour from persons from whom there is reason to apprehend violence; and ensuring that persons suspected of crime are brought to justice." Secondly, the Justices assembled in Quarter Sessions are empowered to try and determine felonies and misdemeanours committed in their county, provided that the more serious cases are reserved for the Judges of Assize. Thirdly, Justices sitting as a Court of Summary Jurisdiction have been invested by Statute with the power of dealing summarily with a very large number of criminal offences. Fourthly, various functions in civil matters have from time to time been assigned by Statute to Justices of the Peace. The most important of these is the licensing of places for the sale of intoxicating liquor. They have also jurisdiction in such matters as Affiliation Orders, Separation and Protection Orders, disputes under the Employers and Workmen Act,

of 1885; &c. Finally, Justices of the Peace have a number of duties which have been called "ministerial," particularly the taking of declarations under certain Acts of Parliament.

The powers and duties of Justices of the Peace in Scotland are much less extensive than in England and Wales. In Scotland Justices of the Peace are empowered to deal with statutory offences under certain Acts, such as the Children Act and Cruelty to Animals Act, and with small debt cases not exceeding £5. They possess certain administrative functions, for instance, licensing; and they are called upon to perform ministerial duties similar to those performed by English Justices. But their criminal jurisdiction is extremely limited.

For further information as to the powers and duties of Justices of the Peace, reference may be made to "Stone's Justices Manual."

MAGISTRATES' ASSOCIATION.

For supplying information to Justices on the social side of their duties, *e.g.*, in administering the Probation System, on licensing, and so on, the Magistrates' Association was formed in 1921, under the Presidency of Lord Haldane. Membership of the Association is confined to magistrates and others who hold His Majesty's Commission in a judicial capacity, and amongst its objects are: To collect and publish information upon all aspects of the work of magistrates. To promote the best methods of preventing crime, and of treating offenders with a view to their reform. To consider and report upon proposed legislation, and to promote legislation which appears necessary in the sight of magisterial experience.

The Magistrates' Association issues (to members only) a quarterly journal, "The Magistrate." The annual subscription for Benches is £5, and for magistrates who wish to join individually £1. Communications should be addressed to the Secretary, Mr. Cecil Leeson, The Magistrates' Association, 84 Eccleston Square, S.W. 1. More recently there was formed an Association for Scottish Justices, having objects similar to the above. The Secretary is Mr. J. J. Bonar, W.S., of 15 Hill Street, Edinburgh.

POOR LAW.

The legal right of the destitute to relief was first established by the Poor Relief Act, 1601 (43 Elizabeth, Chapter 2), which provided for the appointment of Overseers of the Poor, who should set the poor to work, raise a convenient stock for the purpose of buying "flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron and other necessary ware and stuff," raise money for the relief of the impotent poor and account for the money they expended. The Act further provided that the Overseers might bind poor children as apprentices and build houses on waste land for the impotent poor. The powers and duties of Guardians at the present time arise from the subsequent extensions of this Act. The particular provision by which the legal right of the poor to relief is most clearly defined is probably Section 54 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, by which the Relieving Officer in cases of sudden and urgent necessity is "required to give such temporary relief as each case shall require, in articles of absolute necessity."

The most important Act after that of 1601 is undoubtedly the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, but in the succeeding 90 years it has been subjected to very many amendments, and the dominating spirit of Poor Law has changed even more than the law.

Broadly, the power of the Guardians is to relieve destitution, and destitution has never been defined by statute. It was defined in evidence before the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws, 1905-9, as follows :-

"Destitution, when used to describe the condition of a person as a subject for relief, implies that he is, for the time being, without material resources—(1) directly available, and (2) appropriate for satisfying his physical needs—(a) whether actually existing, or (b) likely to arise immediately. By physical needs in this definition are meant such needs as must be satisfied—(1) in order to maintain life, or (2) in order to obviate, mitigate, or remove causes endangering life, or likely to endanger life or impair health or bodily fitness for self-support.

It is a matter for the Guardians to decide whether any person is destitute, and in a circular letter issued by the Local Government Board on 18th March, 1910, on the administration of Out-door Relief, the Board stated :—

"The Guardians are entrusted with the task of deciding upon the evidence before them whether a particular person whose case is under consideration is or is not destitute; and in determining this question they have to remember that a person may be destitute in respect of the want of some particular necessity of life without being destitute in all respects as, for instance, a person who is not destitute in the sense that he is entirely devoid of the means of subsistence, may yet be destitute in that he is unable to provide for himself the particular form of medical attendance or treatment of which he is in urgent need."

The duties and powers of the Guardians are derived from Statutes and from the Rules, Regulations and Orders issued by the Central Authority, now the Ministry of Health. They have to appoint the necessary officers, make half-yearly orders on the appropriate authorities for such contributions as are required for their purposes, make contracts for maintenance or relief of the poor, erect buildings for institutional treatment, to hear, consider, determine and give directions in respect of all applications for relief, and to order the amount and nature of relief to be given in any particular case.

The officers of a Board are bound to observe and execute all their lawful orders, and the duties of some principal officers are laid down by the Central Authority.

The Guardians may provide the following institutions:—Workhouses now generally called "The Institution," Infirmary, Sanatoria for Phthisis cases, Colonies for Sane Epileptics, Asylums for Imbeciles and Insane Epileptics, Homes for aged poor, Schools for poor children (Boarding Schools, Cottage Homes, Scattered Homes, and Training Ships), Casual Wards, Convalescent Homes.

The Guardians may send suitable cases to Training Ships, to homes provided by other Guardians, to homes provided by Special Societies for blind, sick, wounded or disabled blind or deaf mutes, defectives, epileptics, or to institutions for training. It is entirely within the discretion of the Guardians to select the appropriate form of Institutional Relief for any particular case.

In respect of certain classes in the metropolis, the Metropolitan Asylums Board provide special institutions for all

the Boards of Guardians in London. Imbeciles, epileptics, sick and convalescent children, &c., are dealt with in this way.

Poor lunatics are first dealt with by the Guardians' Relieving Officer and are admitted to the Guardians' Institution for examination by magistrates. They are afterwards maintained at the Guardians' expense at Mental Hospitals provided by the County or Borough Authorities.

OUTDOOR RELIEF.

The regulations affecting the grant of outdoor relief by the Guardians are contained in the Relief Regulation Order, 1911.

The Guardians may grant outdoor relief to all cases of destitution within the Union or Parish, whether arising from permanent or temporary disability. They may relieve able-bodied widows. They may also grant outdoor relief to these classes if non-resident but removable to the Union or Parish. Outdoor relief under the Order cannot be given to able-bodied men or to a widow or married woman with illegitimate child, except in the following cases:—

1. Relief required on account of sickness, accident or bodily or mental infirmity affecting the person or any member of his family dependent on him.
2. Relief required for the purpose of defraying the expense of burial of any member of his family.
3. A married man with a family; if the man be relieved in a workhouse, his wife and family may be granted outdoor relief after the Guardians have passed a special resolution.
4. A man—on condition that he is set to work.
5. In any case, if on consideration of the special circumstances of any particular case, the Guardians grant outdoor relief and report the matter to the Central Authority within 21 days. If the Central Authority do not disapprove of relief so given, or if it is given only in food, it will not be subject to disallowance by the District Auditor.

This last provision was intended to be for an individual and exceptional emergency, but the relief to able-bodied persons in money and kind during the present stress of unemployment is being given under it. It is necessary for the

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Guardians to report the special circumstances which have arisen (e.g., widespread unemployment), and the relief granted in consequence.

Guardians may also give relief to Underfed Children at Public Elementary Schools under the Relief (School Children) Order, 1905.

To undertake their duties as regards relief, the Guardians must establish Relief Districts, with a Relieving Officer to each district, and Medical Districts for which a medical man must be appointed. They may pay for medical attention rendered by private medical practitioners when required by a midwife.

The Guardians may expend money in assisting the emigration of any poor person, whether the person is in receipt of relief or not, and they may arrange for the boarding out of poor children with Foster Parents, or for the apprenticeship of any child under their care.

In the exercise of some of the powers enumerated above, it is necessary for the Guardians to obtain the sanction of the Central Authority to their proposals.

From this summary, it will be observed that the Guardians have very wide powers, but these powers are not always fully used. In some Unions in industrial districts there is an enlightened administration under which the Guardians' powers are used to their fullest extent, and, as far as possible, the appropriate form of relief is secured to every poor person who has recourse to the Poor Law Authority. In other districts, particularly in the less densely populated areas, the Guardians will be found to be constituting themselves guardians of the rates rather than of the poor, and adequate outdoor relief is unknown, the most appropriate form of relief being avoided, if it would increase the cost of a case.

See pages 169-172 for Statistics as to the recent use of the Poor Law.

FINANCE.

The funds for local government are derived from :—

1. Grants from Central Government taxation receipts.
2. Revenues from trading enterprises (gas, electricity, &c.)
3. Fees for local government services (markets, baths, &c.)
4. Local government taxes or "rates."

Grants.

The purposes of these are (1) to provide the nation's share of the cost of semi-national services, (2) to correct inequalities in the local taxation system, and (3) to enable the Government effectively to supervise the administration of semi-national services. (Report of Commission on Local Taxation, 1914. Cd.).

The Grants were originally made from assigned revenues, but are not so made at present. The money is now paid from the Consolidated Fund, but by an Order in Council of 30th Oct., 1908, County Councils in England and Wales have power to levy the duties on local taxation licenses (game, dogs, guns, carriages, &c.).

The largest amounts of grants at present are for education, roads, police, and specific health services. The amounts granted generally run to about 50 per cent. of the total expenditure. For figures, &c., see page 286, Labour Year Book, 1924.

Trading Enterprises.

The principal trading services of local authorities involved current and capital expenditure in 1919 of £77,000,000, as compared with £154,000,000 for non-trading services. Total surplus for trading services was £976,000, and total deficiency £1,635,000. (Royal Commission on Local Government I., p. 43.) See section on Gas, &c., p. 174.

Fees.

These amount to a very small sum in the income of local authorities.

Rates

Are the chief source of direct income for local authority services. The authorities for assessing for rates are the Overseers and the Councils.

The principles of assessment are that (1) the occupier, whether owner or tenant, and not the owner as owner, has to pay the rate; (2) the only occupier who does not pay is "the Crown," but the Treasury usually makes a contribution in place of rates in respect of property in the area; (3) the occupation must be a "beneficial" occupation, *i.e.*, empty property is not rated; (4) rates are payable on the *annual*

value. For rateable value see page 31. (5) Contractors rent or "substituted building basis" is used as a basis for valuation for schools, hospitals, &c. This is arrived at by adding together a percentage on the value of the site and a percentage on the cost or value of the buildings. (6) Competitive value is used as basis in the case of railways, stations, &c. This is based upon probable earning capacity, judged by reference to receipts.

OVERSEERS OF THE POOR.

Overseers are appointed annually in each parish either by the borough or urban district council under the Local Government Act, 1894, or by justices of the peace on nomination by the vestry meeting or, in rural parishes, by the parish council, parish meeting or in default of these, by the Board of Guardians. In London, however, the borough councils are the Overseers, and each council elects a Valuation Committee. An overseer must be a "substantial householder" within the parish, or a person inhabiting as a householder an adjoining parish if he consents to serve. In the case of a householder of the parish concerned the person appointed must accept office without payment unless he is successful in his appeal to Quarter Sessions against appointment. An assistant overseer is generally appointed to do the work and is paid out of the Poor Rate, but the responsibility, nevertheless, lies with the overseer.

Duties of Overseers.

The overseer must prepare a valuation list and revise it periodically, showing for all rateable properties (1) the gross estimated rental, and (2) the net annual value (the rateable value) which is calculated by subtracting the cost of repairs and other similar expenses from the gross estimated rental. Rateable value of agricultural land must be shown separately. Valuation lists must be submitted for approval to the Union Assessment Committee appointed annually by each Board of Guardians, which must hear any objections to the valuation lists, and must be satisfied as to the accuracy of the lists, employing, if necessary for this purpose, expert valuers. Objections by a ratepayer to the valuation of his property may be made to the Assessment Committee either when the list is published, and for this purpose it must be open to

inspection, or when the rate is demanded from him. He may further appeal against the decision of the Assessment Committee to Quarter Sessions or, in certain cases, to Special Sessions in that case having a further appeal to Quarter Sessions.

Besides the duties of overseers in relation to rates, there are many others of which the following are the principal :—

Overseers must give relief in kind, or order for attendance of District Medical Officer, or for admission to the workhouse, in cases of urgent necessity. (Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, S. 54.)

Overseers have a right to object to the execution of works by a Local Authority outside that Authority's district. (P.H. Act, 1875, S. 32.)

Overseers must pay the cost of keeping closed burial grounds in order. They must arrange for the burial of drowned persons in sea or tidal waters. (Acts 1868 and 1886.)

They are required to take proceedings against persons responsible for disorderly houses, and to reward informers.

In addition to the above duties, overseers may be required, under certain Acts, to assist in compiling Jury Lists, in taking a Census, in making lists of men suitable to be constables, and they may in some cases hold land or acquire land and buildings.

AMOUNT OF RATES.

The following table shows the amounts raised and the chief change in rates in England and Wales since 1914. The figures given for the years ending 31st March, 1923, and 31st March, 1924, are estimated from the latest particulars available.

Year ending 31st March	Total receipts of local authorities from rates.	Average amount of rates collected.		Percentage increase since 31st March, 1914, in average amount of rates per pound of assessable value.
		Per pound of assessable value.	Per head of estimated population.	
1	2	3	4	5
"	£	s. d.	£ s. d.	
1914	71,276,000	6 8½	1 18 11	—
1920	105,590,000	9 0½	2 16 4	42
1921	151,865,000	13 7	4 0 11	102
1922	170,872,000	14 7½	4 10 2	116
1923	159,000,000	13 3½	1 3 4	98
1924	144,000,000	12 2	3 14 10	81

The total amounts raised by rates during the year 1923-1924 have, according to the latest available particulars, been allocated approximately as follows :—*

Nature of Expenditure.	Amount £.
Relief of the poor and other expenses of Boards of†	
Guardians... ..	32,900,000
Education (elementary and higher)	30,300,000
Police	8,700,000
Highways, health services, and all other services of Local Authorities‡	72,100,000

Local rates vary very considerably from district to district. In the year 1923-24§ in Metropolitan Boroughs they were as high as 23s. per pound of assessable value in Poplar, 18s. 6d. in Bermondsey, and as low as 10s. 3d. in the City of London, and 10s. 5d. in Finsbury. In County Boroughs the difference is even more startling. In West Ham and Merthyr Tydfil the rates are respectively 23s. 5d. and 25s. 6d., whilst in Southport they drop as low as 8s. 4d., and in Blackpool they are only 7s. In Municipal Boroughs the rates range from 8s. 2d. in Preesall (Lancs.) and 8s. 6d. in South Molton || (Devon) to 19s. in Keighley || (Yorks.), and 22s. 8d. in Neath (Glamorgan). In Urban Districts they range from 6s. 8d. in Rothbury (Northumberland), 7s. in Greenford || (Middlesex), and 7s. 4d. in Baslow and Bubnell (Derby), to 22s. 6d. in Brownhills || (Stafford), 24s. 4d. in Walthamstow (Essex), and 24s. 11d. in Gelligaer (Glamorgan). In Rural Parishes the rates vary from 6s. 4d. at Brighstone (Isle of Wight), and 7s. at Willey (Warwick), to 18s. 8d. at Ryhill (Yorks.), and 22s. 6d. at Dylais Higher (Glamorgan).

* These figures are taken from a statement published by the Ministry of Health in 1924.

† Excluding sums for the public health expenses of the Managers of the Metropolitan Asylum District.

‡ Including sums for the public health expenses of the Managers of the Metropolitan Asylum District.

§ These figures are taken from a statement issued by the Ministry of Health in 1924.

|| These districts comprise two or more parishes or other differentially rated areas. The figures given are those for the oldest (or most central) portion of the borough or district.

REFORM OF RATING.

The Rating and Valuation Bill, introduced in Parliament in 1922, has been submitted to Local Authorities and other interested bodies, for consideration. The main objects of the amendments of existing practice proposed by the Bill are :-

1. Simplification and improvement of administrative machinery for Rating and Valuation (consolidation of rates, &c.).
2. Removal of anomalies of the present system.
3. Adoption of a single valuation for purposes of local rating and Central Government taxation.
4. Promotion of uniformity in valuation.

Part I. of the Bill proposes the abolition of Overseers of the Poor and transference of their functions to Councils as from April 1st, 1925. Abolition of separate General District Rate and Poor Rate, &c., substituting one consolidated General Rate.

This Rate is to be levied at a uniform amount in the pound of rateable value, allowances for gross value of different properties being made (Section 16). Provision is made for privilege of certain classes of property. "Compounding" is reduced to 10 per cent. if occupied and 15 per cent. otherwise, to apply to premises up to £15 of rateable value, and for which a weekly rent is payable.

In Part II. the greatest change is that "special properties" (railways, gasworks, &c.), shall be rated by a Central Valuation Authority, under the Minister of Health.

LOANS.

The Public Health Act, 1875, and other Acts, make the following conditions for the borrowing of money by Local Authorities :—

1. The loan must be for works of a more or less permanent kind ;
2. the amount of the loan is limited, unless particular exceptions are granted ;
3. the period of repayment shall be fixed by the Minister of Health, and it must not exceed that prescribed in public general Acts.
4. the payment of interest and repayment of the loan is chargeable against the rates or revenue account.

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If there is statutory authority to borrow, application must be made to the Ministry of Health, stating purpose and amount of loan and other particulars as to the size, rateable value, &c., of the local government unit.

The periods of repayment vary from 30 years for County Council loans to 60 years for Public Health loans. In some cases, however, the repayment period is 80 years. (See App. I.a., Select Committee Report, 1902, H.C. 239.)

Under the Local Authorities (Financial Provisions) Acts, 1921-23, money borrowed before 1st April, 1924, is not reckoned as part of debt of Local Authority in regard to limits of power to borrow, if the purpose of the loan is for provision of work for unemployed. The maximum period of repayment is ten years.

Loans are raised (1) from Public Works Loans Commissioners (see below), (2) by mortgages, (3) by issue of Stock under Local Government Act of 1888 for County Councils or Public Health Act, 1890, for Urban Authorities; (4) by Bills of Exchange pending issue of stock; (5) Debentures or Debenture Stock or Annuities under the Local Loans Act, 1875; (6) by using sinking funds (see below), and (7) by Housing Bonds. Of these No. 4 requires Parliamentary authority; No. 2, mortgages, is very often used; No. 3, Stock, is used only for amounts over £50,000.

In 1875 the total local debt was £92,820,000, and in 1920-21 it was £657,760,985. By far the largest amount in the latter year was for Waterworks among "reproductive" undertakings. Debt for Housing amounted to £92,822,937; for Highways, &c., £62,000,000, and Education, £45,000,000. The control of the amount raised and its use, of course, rests with the ratepayers themselves, although the Minister of Health exercises some supervision. The Finance Committees of the Councils, therefore, are the instruments of the policy of the ratepayers. (See Bastable, Public Finance, p. 769.)

Repayment of Loans.

Under Section 234 (4) of the Public Health Act, 1875, three methods for repayment are allowed, namely:—

1. The instalment method, annual instalment of principal repaid *plus* interest on balance.

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2. The annuity method, by equal payments of principal and interest combined.
3. The sinking fund method, by setting aside a sum periodically to provide a definite amount at a future date, interest being paid meanwhile on the whole loan.

The Select Committee of 1909 reported that the last is the method generally in use. The sinking fund may be used for investment in external securities, but this often results in periods during which the fund is not earning. The other uses of sinking funds are (a) to apply annual instalment in debt redemption, or (b) to use the sinking fund as new capital. Consolidation of loans is to the advantage of Local Authorities with many loans outstanding.

Books:—

Turner, Repayment of Loans. (Manchester University Press).

Johnson, Finance and Law of Local Authorities' Loans and Borrowing Powers.

Official Reports:—

Report on Repayment of Loans, 1902. H.C. 239.

Report on Accounts of Local Authorities, 1907. Cd. 3614.

Public Works Loans.

Commissioners for Public Works Loans are appointed under the Public Works Loans Act of 1875. The Commissioners may lend to Public Authorities "if they think it expedient," and must consider the sufficiency of the security and determine whether the work proposed is sufficient public benefit. The Commissioners are responsible to Parliament and are quite independent of the Government Departments. So far they have advanced about £255,600,000. Of this sum about £2,000,000 has been remitted by Parliament, including advances made in connection with the Irish Famine and a small sum advanced by command of Parliament. Additional powers have been given to the Board by the Public Works Loans Acts, 1894-1908. An Act is passed annually providing that certain loans may be issued by the Commissioners. Loans secured on local rates are issued for commercial undertakings, harbours, highways, housing, museums, police buildings, &c., Loans secured on property are issued for

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canals, main drainage, housing purposes where the work is carried out by Public Utility Societies, companies, &c., territorial headquarters, &c.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE.

Central Government Control of expenditure is maintained by means of (1) limiting capital expenditure, under the general power of the Minister to approve loans, (2) influencing the direction in which expenditure occurs by compelling provision of some services and giving grants-in-aid; and (3) auditing accounts.

AUDIT OF ACCOUNTS.

The Ministry of Health appoints District Auditors who examine all accounts of local authorities except those of non-Metropolitan Boroughs. The Municipal Corporations Act provides for the election of borough auditors. The audit is annual. District Auditors are paid under the estimates of the Ministry of Health, but a stamp duty is paid by the local authorities which is based upon the amount of their expenditure, and their stamp duty is treated as the local authorities' payment for audit.

The Ministry regulates (a) the method of keeping accounts; (b) the form of publication of accounts, and (c) the kind of audit. (See Report of Local Accounts, 1907, Cd. 3614). The purpose of regulating the method of keeping and the publication of accounts is to give the ratepayers full knowledge.

The District Auditor has power to reduce charges and payments, to disallow illegal expenditure, and to surcharge it upon individual members of the authority which has authorised it. He may also surcharge the person who is responsible for money lost or for which no account is given. Appeal against the Auditor may be taken to the Minister. In 1922-23 there were 958 disallowances and surcharges. Against these 135 appeals were made, and in 14 cases the Auditor's decision was reversed.

Elective Auditors.

There are two elective auditors (M.C. Act, 1882, Section 25) besides one who must be a Councillor, chosen by the Mayor: the other two must be ratepayers, nominated

by persons qualified to be Councillors, and they must not be Councillors. Boroughs have power to appoint professional auditors in addition to elective auditors, or to abolish the elective auditors and submit their accounts either to Government auditors or to professional auditors.

Returns for various matters (*e.g.* Trading, Housing, etc.) are required by the Central Department.

Under the Audit (Local Authorities) Act, 1922, some minor improvements were made in the system, and a reorganisation of the service is announced in the Report of the Ministry of Health for 1922-23, p. 72.

Right to Inspect Accounts.

Under Section 247 (4) of the Public Health Act, 1875, all persons interested may, without payment, inspect and make extracts from accounts of Parish Councils, Urban and Rural District Councils during seven days before the audit at the office of the Authority. Under the Local Government Act, 1894, a parochial elector may see and make extracts from books, accounts and documents, of Parish Meetings, Parish Councils and Rural District Councils at all reasonable times without payment.

Under a General Order of 1880, the accounts of an Urban District Council must be open to inspection by any ratepayer during audit.

Borough Council Finance is still more public. Under Section 233 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, any local government elector may inspect minutes of the Council or Orders to pay, and may make extracts. Ratepayers of the borough even though not electors, may inspect the abstract of accounts and obtain copies at a low fee. Inspection of accounts of County Councils is possible in the same way.

Boards of Guardians' Accounts, under a General Order of 1867, may be inspected, and copied by any ratepayer or owner of property within the area of the Union.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

The Chief Department of the Central Government concerned with the local authorities is the *Ministry of Health*. This Ministry came into existence on 1st July, 1919, and took over the power of the former Local Government Board, the Insurance Commissioners and the Welsh Insurance Commissioners, as well as the power of the Privy Council with regard to midwives. The powers of the Board of Education with regard to (1) the health of mothers and children and (2) medical inspection of children and young persons were also transferred to the new Ministry. From the Home Office the new Ministry took over (1) the protection of infant life under the Children Act (2) some powers in regard to lunacy and mental deficiency and (3) some powers in regard to health of industrial workers under the Factory Act, 1901. From the Board of Trade the Ministry took over some powers with regard to water supply.

The following functions of the old Local Government Board were transferred (1) to the Home Office, registration and elections, (2) to the Board of Education, public libraries and museums, (3) to the Board of Trade, some powers over gas undertakings.

The powers of the Minister of Health over local authorities relate chiefly to (1) *Poor Law*. He has complete control of poor law officers, even the power of direct dismissal: he issues Orders, audits accounts, and controls administration through general inspectors. (2) *Public Health*. Report of local medical officers of health must be sent to the Minister, who has power to send a medical officer from the department to inspect any district. The Minister has power to prevent dismissal of certain full-time medical officers of health (*Public Health Officers Act, 1921*, and *Sanitary Officers Order, 1922*). All bye-laws on public health must be approved by the Minister. (3) *New* and very extensive powers are given to the Minister under *Housing and Town Planning Acts*. (4) *Private Bills* relating to functions of the Ministry of Health must be submitted to the Department for report to Parliament (*Standing Orders*). (5) *Finance*. Loans must be sanctioned and accounts audited by the Minister. (6) *Area organisation*. The Minister may allow urban powers to rural

authorities and declare sections of the 1907 P.H. Act to be in force anywhere. (7) He receives the final appeal on Old Age Pensions cases and must give consent to the exercise of various minor powers.

Board of Education.

In addition to powers referred to under the section on Education (see p. 65), the Board has power to *compel* local authorities to fulfil their duties under Education Acts. This would be done by a writ of *Mandamus*.

Various forms of education, however, are not supervised by the Board, but by other Departments, for example: Agricultural Education by the Ministry of Agriculture; Poor Law Schools by the Ministry of Health; Industrial and Reformatory Schools by the Home Office; University Education by the Privy Council; and the University Grants Committee by the Treasury; Army and Navy Schools by the Admiralty and War Office. With regard to public elementary education, however, the Board of Education has almost complete control, owing to the fact that a local authority cannot legally conduct any school except such as complies with the Code and Regulations issued by the Board, and if these regulations are not followed the school is not qualified for grant.

The Home Office.

The Home Office supervises the police forces of local authorities and makes grants for this purpose. This is its chief function in regard to local government; but it also organises registration and elections, approves bye-laws, and has powers in regard to burial grounds, probation, reformatory and industrial schools, inebriates, places of detention, employment of children, workshops which local authorities inspect for cleanliness, drainage, fire-escapes, or in regard to bakehouses and 'home-work', where also local authorities have duties. Local authorities' supervision of Shops is under the general confirming power of the Home Secretary, who has duties also in regard to the safe keeping of petroleum, in regard to theatres, music and dancing, cinematographs, fairs. In the matter of licensing premises for the sale of liquor, the Home Office supervises.

The Ministry of Agriculture.

The Ministry of Agriculture supervises the operation of the Diseases of Animals Acts. The powers of the local authorities are laid down in the Diseases of Animals Act, 1894, and in the various orders of the Ministry made under that Act. Similarly, for the activities of local authorities in regard to destructive insects and pests, the Ministry of Agriculture is the supervising authority. The same Ministry supervises the provision of small holdings and allotments, and organises, with the County Councils, the County Agricultural Committees; with the Local Education Authorities, Agricultural Education. Local Fisheries Committees, under the Act of 1888, are supervised in regard to bye-laws, license duties, etc., by the same Ministry.

The Board of Trade.

The Board of Trade verifies standards for weights and measures, the regulation of which is administered by the local authorities, and examines and certifies candidates nominated by local authorities for appointment as Inspectors of Gas Meters. Local Authorities whose district includes a sea-port require the approval of the Board of Trade for bye-laws in regard to seamen's lodging houses, etc. The Board of Trade also has powers in regard to applications by local authorities in relation to the provision of gas.

Functions of other Departments.

The Ministry of Transport controls the administration of highways, harbours, docks, canals, tramways, and light railways, largely by means of grants from the Road Improvement and other funds. The Ministry also has power to confirm bye-laws.

The Ministry of Labour under the Education Act, 1921, Section 107, assists the local education authorities in regard to the choice of employment for juveniles.

The Privy-Council Office deals with applications from the inhabitants of an area desiring the grant of a charter of incorporation.

The Board of Control is the old Lunacy Commission whose name was changed by the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913. It deals with local authorities in regard to lunacy, in conjunction with the Ministry of Health.

The Lord Chancellor's Office deals with the appointment of Justices of the Peace.

The Office of Works supervises the care of ancient monuments by local authorities.

PARLIAMENT AND LOCAL LEGISLATION.

Private Bill Legislation has a special procedure of its own in Parliament. Private or local bills must be distinguished from private members' bills which are of course public bills for public purposes. The promoters of local bills frame and deposit them in Parliament and their stages in the House of Commons are moved by private members, but in the Lords by the Chairman of Committees. In the House of Commons at the commencement of each Session a resolution is passed which provides that certain bills dealing with local legislation should be referred to a special committee of 15 members, called the Local Legislation Committee, to which are committed all private bills promoted by local authorities by which it is proposed to create powers in conflict with, deviation from, or excess of the provisions of the general law. (Resolution, March 1st, 1923.)

Bills pass through the following stages:—Official notices are issued in October and November and bills are deposited in December. They are then considered by the Parliamentary Authorities and the Departments. At the end of January the bills are divided between the two Houses. Before municipal bills are dealt with in Parliament the ratepayers must express their approval and they may reject the bill either wholly or in part. A vote at a public meeting may be demanded. Petitions against a bill may be deposited within a stated time. Most municipal bills are dealt with first in the Commons, because they usually contain matters referred to in the Resolution quoted above.

Special Order Procedure.

Since the War certain Acts have given power to issue provisional or special orders and this supplements the usual power of proceeding by Private Bill legislation. The Minister of Transport, under Section 16, 17, of the Railways Act, 1921, has power to issue Orders, but a new method, that of the Special Order, was introduced under the Electricity (Supply) Bill, and the Gas Regulation Act, 1920, Section 10. The

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Orders lie on the table of the House for a certain time and then become law. About 100 of these Orders have been passed unopposed without the payment of any fees such as are necessary for a Provisional Order or a Private Bill. The problem of local enquiries by the departments concerned in reference to suggested Orders is now being considered by the Royal Commission (See Evidence, Part II., page 341).

COUNTY BOROUGH EXTENSIONS.

Under Section 54 of the Act of 1888 provision is made for the creation or alteration of the boundaries of a County Borough. In the Schedule of that Act 61 County Boroughs were named, but there are now 82, and the change has involved a transfer to borough authorities from county authorities of nearly 2,000,000 inhabitants and a rateable value of about £11,000,000. Extensions of existing boroughs have deprived the counties of about 1½ million inhabitants and a rateable value of about £6½ millions. The problem of county government has therefore in some ways become more difficult. On the other hand, municipal corporations have been compelled to seek extension of their boundaries because (i.) populations working in their areas have tended to live at increasing distances and therefore in the neighbouring county area, (ii.) sewage disposal plants, other municipal works and housing schemes necessitate the taking over of new areas.

With regard to the creation of new boroughs the Act of 1888 provided that groupings of over 50,000 population should have power to be recognised as different for administrative purposes from the more scattered population under county authorities; but the process of transforming county areas into town areas created so many difficulties for the counties that the Local Government (Adjustments) Act, 1913, was passed, following upon the report of the Joint Committee of 1911. Under this Act compensation is granted to the county authorities for any disadvantages due to a rearrangement of areas. Additional difficulties sometimes arise because the inhabitants of the area into which the borough seeks to extend its boundaries are sometimes opposed to such extension because of the possible increase of rates and other difficulties. A full discussion of the two chief points of view in this matter will be found in the Evidence given on behalf of the County Councils' Association and the Association of Municipal Corporations (Royal Commission on Local Government, Part III.).

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SCOTLAND.

The following notes indicate the chief differences between local government in Scotland and that in England and Wales.

There are six kinds of local authorities in Scotland, namely, Town Councils, County Councils, District Committees, Education Authorities, Parish Councils, and District Boards of Control.

Town Councils.

There is a Town Council in each Royal, Parliamentary or Police Burgh. Royal Burghs were created by Royal Charter. Parliamentary Burghs were created by the Reform Act of 1832 and subsequent Acts, and the term Parliamentary Burgh means a Burgh, other than a Royal Burgh, which prior to the passing of the Representation of the People Act, 1918, returned, or contributed with other burghs to return, a Member to Parliament (whether or not it continues to do so under the 1918 redistribution). Royal and Parliamentary Burghs were not included in the County for local government purposes by the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1889. Police Burghs are created under the Burgh Police (Scotland) Acts, 1892 and 1893, or general or local Police Acts; under the Burgh Police (Scotland) Acts populous places with a population of 7000 or upwards may be made Police Burghs by an Order of the Sheriff fixing municipal boundaries.

Under the Town Councils (Scotland) Act, 1900, Town Councils consist of Councillors elected for 3 years, one-third of the Councillors retiring annually. The Council elects one of its members as Provost (corresponding to the English Mayor) and other members as Bailies. The Provost and Bailies (with any judges of police who may be appointed under Section 62 of the Town Councils (Scotland) Act, 1900) are the Magistrates, who try offences in the police courts of the Burgh. The Provost and Bailies constitute the Licensing Court in Burghs which have separate Licensing Courts (*i.e.*, Royal, Parliamentary or Police Burghs with a population of or exceeding 7,000, and Royal or Parliamentary Burghs with a population under 7,000, but of or exceeding 4,000).

The Town Council may appoint Committees of their number, and the Chairman of these Committees are called "Conveners."

The Chairman of the Dean of Guild Court is usually called the "Dean of Guild." The constitution and powers of the Court vary in different Burghs. Many Burghs are subject

to the provisions of the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892, which provide that the Dean of Guild Court shall consist of the Dean of Guild or Provost of the Burgh, and not less than two Councillors, who may be Magistrates. The Court exercises jurisdiction over new buildings, alterations, repairs, etc.

County Councils.

These were established by the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1889, and correspond to County Councils in England and Wales. The Chairman is called the "Convener of the County."

A County Council appoints from its members a Finance Committee and a County Road Board. In addition, it appoints not more than seven of its members to form, with not more than seven representatives of the commissioners of supply, the Standing Joint Committee—who are the responsible body in the administration of county police and whose consent is required to undertaking capital expenditure and borrowing; and each County Councillor is a member of his own District Committee. (See below.)

Each County, with certain exceptions, is divided by the County Council into districts for the management of Highways and Public Health.

District Committees.

These consist of the County Councillors for the electoral divisions of the district, one representative from each Parish Council within or partly within the district, and one representative of each Burgh (as defined in the Roads and Bridges (Scotland) Act, 1878), in which the management of highways has, under the 1878 Act, been transferred to the County. They administer the Public Health and Roads and Bridges Acts, are financially under the control of the County Council, and are subject in their proceedings to general regulations made by the County Council. Very roughly, they may be said to carry out the functions which are carried out by a Rural District Council in England.

Education Authorities.

These bodies were created by the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918, replacing the Parish and Burgh School Boards set up by the Act of 1872. There is one Education Authority for each County including all Burghs within the County area, except in the case of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee, which have their own Education Authorities.

Education Authorities are elected every three years by the system of single transferable vote for electoral divisions determined by the Secretary for Scotland. Two principal differences between the constitution and powers of Scottish Education Authorities and of Local Education Authorities in England and Wales may be noted :—

- (a) While in England and Wales the Local Education Authority for a given area is the Local Authority elected for general purposes and exercises its functions under the Education Acts through an Education Committee without rating or borrowing powers, in Scotland the Education Authority is elected "*ad hoc*" with full financial powers. The Scottish Education Authority may delegate certain of its powers, other than financial, to School Management Committees appointed by it for the management of schools or groups of schools within its area.
- (b) In England and Wales a distinction is drawn between elementary and higher education, the Local Education Authority for higher education being in all cases the County Council, while for the purpose of elementary education the Councils of the larger Non-County Burghs and Urban Districts are the Local Education Authorities. In Scotland the Education Authority is the same for all forms of education.

Parish Councils.

These were created by the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1894. The number of Councillors is determined by the County Council, with the approval of the Scottish Board of Health. In landward parishes or parts of parishes they are elected on the same day and in the same place and by the same methods as County Councillors; in burghal parishes or parts of parishes they are elected on the same day, etc., as Town Councillors.

Parish Councils are similar to Boards of Guardians in England and Wales, and are the authority for assessing parochial rates, and for the administration of the poor law. They also have duties in connection with pauper lunatics, burial grounds, registration of births, deaths and marriages, etc. They are bound to appoint an Inspector of Poor, and may also appoint a Clerk. Previous to 1921, able-bodied

unemployed men had no right to relief in Scotland unless they were in a state of destitution which seriously impaired their ability, and this was a vital difference between the Scottish and English systems of poor relief. In 1921, however, the Scottish law in this respect was brought into line with the English law by an Act of temporary duration (the Poor Law Emergency Provisions (Scotland) Act, 1921), which Act has since been continued in force.

District Boards of Control.

These are the local authorities responsible for the erection and maintenance of asylums and institutions for defectives and for the control and care of lunatics and defectives. In the large urban areas such as Glasgow and Edinburgh the District Board of Control is the Parish Council. For the rest of the country the Lunacy District for which the Board is constituted consists of one or more Counties, and the Board is composed of persons annually elected, one-third by chairmen of parish councils and the remaining two-thirds by county councils and magistrates of Burghs in such proportion as may be determined by the General Board of Control for Scotland who also fix the total number of members of each District Board.

Note.—The "Common Good" is the name given to the entire property of a Burgh which is held by the Corporation on behalf of the community. It originated in ancient grants by the Crown of lands and properties, and also in fines, market-dues, tolls, etc., and accordingly only Royal Burghs possess a "Common Good" strictly so called; but the term is also applied in other Burghs to designate funds derived from a number of miscellaneous sources. The accounts of the "Common Good" are kept separate. The income may be devoted to any lawful purpose, and loans may be raised upon the security of the "Common Good" without the restrictions which would otherwise apply.

ELECTORAL LAW.

(England and Wales.)

The following is a summary of the chief provisions of electoral law, but does not pretend to take the place of the ordinary text books on the subject :—

QUALIFICATIONS FOR CANDIDATES FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES.

The following are qualified to be elected :—

Parish Councillors.

(a) A man or woman who is a local Government elector in the Parish concerned : or

(b) A man or woman who has during the whole of the previous twelve months preceding the election resided in the parish, or *within three miles thereof*: Sect. 3 (1) 56 and 57 Vict. c. 73.

(Any person who has entered into residence on or before March 25th in any year is eligible for election at the Parish Council Elections of the succeeding year, although he or she has resided less than a year. 60 Vict., C.I., Sect. 1. Words in italics do not apply to any other authority.)

(c) A man or woman being the owner of property held by freehold, copyhold, leasehold, or any other tenure within the Parish : Sect. 10, 8 Geo. V., c. 64.

The property may be of any value, residence in the Parish is not necessary, and it is sufficient if it is held on or at any time before the day of nomination.

Guardians.

(a) A man or woman who is a local Government Elector of a parish within the union, or

(b) A man or woman who has during the whole of the previous twelve months preceding the election resided in the union : or,

(c) In the case of a guardian for a parish wholly or partly situate within a municipal or county borough a man or woman must be qualified to be a councillor for that borough : Sect. 20 (2), 56 and 57 Vict. c. 73 : or,

(d) A man or woman being the owner of property held by freehold, copyhold, leasehold, or any other tenure within the union. Sect. 10, 8 Geo. V., c. 64.

Rural District Councillors.

The same as for Guardians (see page 46). Sect. 24 (4), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Urban District Councillors.

(a) A man or woman who is a Local Government Elector of some parish within the district : or

(b) A man or woman who has during the whole of the twelve months preceding the election resided in the district : Sect. 23 (2), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73, or,

(c) A man or woman being the owner of property held by freehold, copyhold, leasehold, or any other tenure within the district. Sect. 10, 8 Geo. V., c. 64.

Metropolitan Borough Councillors.

The same as for Urban District Councillors (see above). Sect. 2 (5), 62 and 63 Vict., c. 14.

Borough Councillor (Municipal or County Borough).

(a) A man or a woman who is enrolled and entitled to be enrolled as a burgess : and is seized or possessed of real or personal property or both, to the value or amount, in the case of a borough having four or more wards, of one thousand pounds, and in the case of any other borough, of five hundred pounds, or is rated to the poor rate in the borough, in the case of a borough having four or more wards, or the annual value of thirty pounds, and in the case of any other borough of fifteen pounds : or

(b) A man or woman who is, at the time of election, qualified to elect to the office of councillor (i.e., a local government elector) : Sect. 11 (2) and (3), 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50 : or

(c) A man or woman who has resided within the borough during the whole of the twelve months preceding the election : Sect. 1 (1), 4 and 5 Geo. V., c. 21 : or

(d) A man or woman being the owner of property held by freehold, copyhold, leasehold, or any other tenure within the borough. Sect. 10, 8 Geo. V., c. 64.

County Councillors.

The same as for Municipal and County Boroughs with the modification : that a peer owning property in the County is qualified to be elected as a County Councillor. Sect. 2 (1) and (2) 51, and 52 Vict., c. 41.

Aldermen.

The qualifications for the office of Aldermen are the same in all public authorities. A man or woman must be a Councillor or qualified to be a Councillor, and Sect. 14 (3) 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41 applies.

Mayor.

The Mayor shall be a fit person elected by the council from among the aldermen or councillors or persons qualified to be such. Sect. 15 (1) 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Chairmen.

The Chairman of a Parish Council, Board of Guardians, Rural District Council, Urban District Council, County Council or Metropolitan Borough Council is, by Sections 3 (8): 20 (7) and 24 (4) of the Local Government Act, 1894, Sect. 2 (1) and 75 of the Local Government Act, 1888, and Sect. 2 (4) of the London Government Act, 1899, to be elected from the members of those bodies or from those qualified to be such.

Deputy Mayors.

A Deputy Mayor is appointed by the Mayor from amongst the Aldermen and Councillors, and the appointment must be signified to the Council in writing and recorded in the minutes. Sect. 16 (1) and (2), 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Vice-Chairmen.

Vice-Chairmen of Local Government Authorities other than Boards of Guardians are to be elected by the Councils concerned from amongst the members of the Councils. Sections 59 (2), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73, and Sect. 2 (6), 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41.

By Sect. 20 (7), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73, ^A A Board of Guardians may elect a chairman or vice-chairman, or both, and not more than two other persons from outside their own body, but from persons qualified to be guardians of the union"

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DISQUALIFICATIONS FOR ELECTION AS COUNCILLOR OR ALDERMAN FOR A MUNICIPAL OR COUNTY BOROUGH.

By Section 12 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882,
“ A person shall be disqualified for being elected and for
being a Councillor, if and while he or she—

- (a) Is an elective auditor or a revising assessor, or holds any office or place other than that of mayor or sheriff, in the gift or disposal of the council ; or
- (b) Is in holy orders, or the regular minister of a dissenting congregation ; or
- (c) Has directly or indirectly, by himself or his partner, any share or interest in any contract or employment with, by, or on behalf of the council :

But a person shall not be so disqualified, or deemed to have any share or interest in such a contract or employment, by reason only of his having any share or interest in—

- (a) Any lease, sale, or purchase of land, or any agreement for the same ; or
- (b) Any agreement for the loan of money, or any security for the payment of money only ; or
- (c) Any newspaper in which any advertisement relating to the affairs of the borough or council is inserted ; or
- (d) Any company which contracts with the council for lighting or supplying with water or insuring against fire any part of the borough ; or
- (e) Any railway company, or any company incorporated by Act of Parliament or Royal Charter, or under the Companies Act, 1862 (or any society registered under the Industrial or Provident Societies Acts, 1893 and 1895, Sect. 2, 6, Edw. VII., c. 12). Under this head would also come those companies incorporated under the Companies (Consolidation) Act, 1908.”

Mr. Justice Bailhache in the King's Bench Division on July 29th, 1924, in *Lapish v. Bynthwaite* decided that the latter, who was managing director of a company with running contracts with the Leeds Corporation, was disqualified for being an Alderman of the Leeds City Council under Section 12 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882. This decision means that whilst a mere shareholder is not disqualified a managing director with a peculiar interest may be.

Apart from the general disqualifications in Para. (a) of Sub-sect. 1 of Section 12, the following are specially disqualified:—Town Clerks in Sect. 17; Borough Treasurers in Sect. 18; Coroners in Sect. 171; Registrars of Borough Civil Court in Sect. 178; Recorders in Sect. 163; Borough Clerks of the Peace in Sect. 164; and Clerks to Borough Justices in Sect. 159 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882. The partner of an Officer is also disqualified if he has any interest in an officer's contract with the Corporation.

Naval and Military Officers.

By Sect. 146 of 44 and 45 Vict., c. 58, Officers on the Active Service List are not capable of being elected Mayor, Aldermen, or any office in any Municipal Corporation.

Corrupt Practices at Parliamentary Election.

A person convicted or reported guilty of a corrupt practice at a Parliamentary Election is barred from holding any public office for seven years. Sections 4, 6 (3) and 38 (5) of 46 and 47 Vict., c. 51.

Corrupt Practice at Municipal Election.

By Sect. 2 (2) and 23 of 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70, the disqualification arising from a corrupt practice at a Parliamentary Election is applied to a similar practice at a Municipal Election.

Corrupt Practice by a Candidate.

A candidate at a Municipal Election who is found by an Election Court guilty of a corrupt practice is incapable of ever holding a corporate office in the borough where the offence was committed, and for seven years elsewhere. Sect. 3 (1) 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

Corrupt Practice by Agents.

Where a candidate is found guilty of a corrupt practice by his agents at a Municipal Election, he is incapacitated from being elected or holding any corporate office in the borough where the offence was committed during three years from the date of the report of an Election Court. Sect. 3 (2) 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

Illegal Practices.

Where a candidate at a Municipal Election is reported by the Election Court to have been guilty by himself or his agent of an illegal practice ; or where a candidate at a Municipal Election is guilty of an illegal payment, employment or hiring ; or where illegal practices or offences of illegal payment, employment or hiring, have so extensively prevailed as to affect the result of a Municipal Election, the election of the candidate concerned is void and he is not capable of being elected or holding office during a period for which he was, or might have been, elected to serve. Sections 8 (2), 17 (2) and 18 of 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

Corruption in Office.

A person convicted of corruption whilst holding membership of or an office under a public body may, at the time of conviction, be declared incapable of being elected or appointed to any public office for a period of seven years from the date of his conviction and to forfeit any office held. In case of a second conviction for a like offence he may be adjudged to be for ever incapable of holding any public office and to be incapable for seven years of being registered or voting as a Parliamentary or Local Government voter. Sections 1 and 2, 52 and 53 Vict., c. 69.

Bankruptcy.

(1) A person adjudicated bankrupt cannot continue, or be elected, as Mayor, Alderman or Councillor until either the adjudication has been annulled, or he or she has received his or her discharge with a certificate to the effect that his or her bankruptcy was caused by misfortune without misconduct on his or her part ; Sect. 32, 46 and 47 Vict., c. 52, or a period of five years has elapsed since his or her discharge without a certificate : Sect. 9, 53 and 54 Vict., c. 71.

(2) A person who compounds by deed with his or her creditors, or makes an arrangement or composition with his or her creditors by deed or otherwise, whilst holding the office of Mayor, Alderman or Councillor, becomes disqualified and ceases to hold office. The disqualification ceases on payment of his or her debts in full, or when he or she receives his or her certificate of discharge. Sect. 39 (1) and (3), 45 and 46 Vict., c. 30.

(3) A person who compounds by deed with his or her creditors or under the Bankruptcy Acts when not in office is not disqualified. *Rex. v. Chitty* (1836), 5 A. and E. 609.

Absence from Borough.

Except in case of illness continuous absence from the Borough for more than two months disqualifies a Mayor, and continuous absence from the Borough for more than six months disqualifies an Alderman or a Councillor: Sect. 39 (1) 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. But, by 63 and 64 Vict., c. 46, where absence is caused by service in the auxiliary forces or of the reserve forces during a war or overseas disqualification does not arise. It is submitted, however, before a seat is declared vacant through absence that the holder should be given an opportunity of explaining his absence.

PENALTY.

If a person acts in a corporate office without having made a declaration by this Act required, or without being qualified at the time of making the declaration, or after ceasing to be qualified, or after becoming disqualified, he shall for each offence be liable to a fine not exceeding fifty pounds, recoverable by action, but a person being in fact enrolled in the burgess roll shall not be liable to a fine for acting in a corporate office on the ground only that he was not entitled to be enrolled therein. Sect. 41 (1) and (2), 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

DISQUALIFICATION FOR ELECTION AS COUNCILLOR OR ALDERMAN TO A COUNTY COUNCIL.

By Section 2 of the Local Government Act, 1888, the disqualifications for membership of a County Council are the same as those relating to a Municipal or County Borough, subject to the following exceptions:—

- (a) Clerks in Holy Orders and other Ministers of Religion are not disqualified for election or to be Councillors or Aldermen. Sect. 2 (2), 51 and 52, Vict., c. 41.
- (b) Naval and Military Officers on the Active Service List are not disqualified. Sect. 8, 54 Vict., c. 5.
- (c) There being no Elective Auditors in counties this disqualification does not arise.

- (d) No person is disqualified by reason of having any share or interest in any contract with a County Council for the supply from land, of which he is the owner or occupier, of stone, gravel, or other materials for making or repairing highways or bridges, provided that such share or interest does not exceed £50 in any one year. Sect. 5, 54 and 55, Vict., c. 63.
- (e) A Chairman or Deputy-Chairman of a County Council is not disqualified by continuous absence from a county : Sect. 75 (16), 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41. County Aldermen and County Councillors are disqualified by continuous absence for more than twelve months. Sect. 75 (14), 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41.

DISQUALIFICATIONS FOR BEING ELECTED OR BEING A MEMBER OR CHAIRMAN OF AN URBAN DISTRICT COUNCIL.

Infant.

A man or woman is ineligible for election unless they are 21 years of age. Sect. 46 (1), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Alien.

Persons who do not owe allegiance to the Sovereign of the United Kingdom are ineligible for election. Sect. 46 (1) 56 and 57 Vict., 73. (Persons who are aliens by birth cease to be such upon becoming naturalised British subjects.)

Poor Law Relief.

Persons who have within twelve months before their election, or since their election, received union or parochial relief are disqualified. Sect. 46 (1) 56 and 57, Vict., c. 73.

Imprisonment.

Persons who have within five years before their election or since their election been convicted on indictment or summarily of any crime, and sentenced to imprisonment with hard labour without the option of a fine, or to any greater punishment, and have not received a free pardon are disqualified by Sect. 46 (1) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Bankruptcy.

Persons who have within five years before their election or since their election been adjudged bankrupt, or made a composition or arrangement with their creditors are ineligible: Sect. 46 (1), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73. But it is enacted by Sub-section (4) of the same section that disqualification shall cease in the case of bankruptcy, when the adjudication is annulled, or when a person obtains a discharge with a certificate that bankruptcy was caused by misfortune without misconduct on his or her part, and, in case of composition or arrangement, on payment of his or her debts in full.

This disqualification is different from the disqualification arising out of Section 39 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, and it would seem that at the end of five years disqualification ceases whether there has been a discharge from bankruptcy or payment of debts or not, and it supersedes Sects. 39 and 9 of the Bankruptcy Acts, 1883 and 1890.

Paid Officers.

Persons who hold any paid office under the Council are ineligible. Sect. 46 (1) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Interest in Contracts.

Persons are disqualified who are concerned in any bargain or contract entered into with the Council, or participate in the profit of any such bargain or contract or of any work done under the authority of the Council. Provided that a person shall not be disqualified for being elected or being a member or chairman of any such Council by reason of being interested:—

- (a) In the sale or lease of any lands or in any loan of money to the Council, or in any contract with the Council for the supply from land, of which he or she is owner or occupier, of stone, gravel, or other materials for making or repairing highways or bridges, or in the transport of materials for the repair of roads or bridges in his own immediate neighbourhood; or
- (b) In any newspaper in which any advertisement relating to the affairs of the Council is inserted; or
- (c) In any contract with the Council as a shareholder in any joint stock company; but he or she shall not vote at any meeting of the Council on any question in which such company are interested, except that

in the case of a water company or other company established for the carrying on of works of a like public nature, this prohibition may be dispensed with by the County Council. Sect. 46 (2) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Mr Justice Bailhache in the King's Bench Division on July 29th, 1924, in *Lapish v. Braithwaite* decided that the latter, who was managing director of a company with running contracts with the Leeds Corporation, was disqualified for being an Alderman of the Leeds City Council under Section 12 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882. This decision means that whilst a mere shareholder is not disqualified a managing director with a peculiar interest may be.

Absence.

Persons who are absent from meetings of the Council for more than six months consecutively render their seats vacant, except the reason be a case of illness, or for some reason approved by the Council. Sect. 46 (6) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

It should be noticed that although the seat becomes vacant the member is not disqualified and may be re-elected. The difference between this sub-section and Section 39 of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, should not be missed. Under the latter Act it is *absence from the Borough* and not *absence from Council Meetings* which disqualifies.

A further exception to rendering a seat vacant is absence due to service as an officer or soldier in auxiliary or reserve forces of the Crown or on service beyond the seas. See 63 and 64 Vict., c. 46.

Corrupt and Illegal Practices.

The disqualification arising out of Corrupt and Illegal Practices at Elections are the same as those for Municipal and County Boroughs, and are mentioned on pages 50 and 51.

Returning Officer.

A Returning Officer, who acts as such at an election, is disqualified for being elected at that election. (See Rogers on Elections, Vol. III., page 26, 18th Edition.)

Penalty.

Where a person acts when disqualified, or votes when prohibited under Section 46 of the Local Government Act, 1894, he shall for each offence be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding twenty pounds. Sect. 46 (8) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

**DISQUALIFICATIONS RELATING TO CANDIDATURES
AND MEMBERSHIP OF OTHER LOCAL AUTHORITIES
COMING UNDER THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT,
1894.**

Parish Councils.

The same as for Urban District Councils, with the following exception: "Where a person who is a Parish Councillor, or is a candidate for election as a Parish Councillor, is concerned in a bargain or contract with the Council, or participates in profits arising from the same, as would disqualify him or her for being a Parish Councillor, the disqualification may be removed by the County Council if they are of the opinion that such removal will be beneficial to the parish." Sect. 46 (3) 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

Board of Guardians.

The same as for Urban District Councils with the following addition:—Under Sect. 14, 5 and 6 Vict., c. 57, it is provided:—

- (a) That no person during the time for which he or she may serve or hold the office of Assistant Overseer of any parish, nor any paid officer engaged in the administration of the laws for the relief of the poor, nor any person who, having been a paid officer, shall have been dismissed within five years previously from such office under the provisions of 4 and 5 Will. IV., c. 76, shall be capable of serving as a guardian.
- (b) And no person receiving any fixed salary or emolument from the poor rates in any parish or union shall be capable of serving as a Guardian in such parish.

Under para. (a) the disqualification is general. The Clerk of one Union is ineligible to act as a Guardian in any other Union. The disqualification in para. (b) is local and confined to a particular parish.

Rural District Councils.

The same as for Boards of Guardians.

Metropolitan Borough Councils.

By Section 2 (5) of the London Government Act, 1899, Section 46 of the Local Government Act, 1894, is applied to the offices of Mayor, Alderman and Councillor of Metropolitan Boroughs. The disqualifications are, therefore, the same as those for Urban District Councils.

**DATES FOR THE ELECTION OF COUNCILLORS,
ALDERMEN, MAYORS AND ELECTIVE AUDITORS
OF VARIOUS LOCAL AUTHORITIES.**

Municipal and County Boroughs—Councillors.

The ordinary date for the election of Councillors in Municipal and County Boroughs is 1st November, annually. Sect. 52 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy amongst Councillors in these boroughs is fixed by the mayor, but it must be held within 14 days after notice in writing of the vacancy has been given to the mayor or town clerk by two burgesses. Section 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. The mayor, however, in fixing the day must give nine clear days' notice of the election. Section 54 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. So that he has only a choice of a few days.

Aldermen.

The ordinary date for the election of aldermen is November 9th, in every third year, when one-half of the whole number of aldermen go out of office. The election is held immediately after the election of mayor and takes place at the quarterly meeting of the Council. Sections 14 and 60 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

It should be noted, however, that an alderman, as such, cannot vote in the election of an alderman. Section 1 of 10, Ed. 7 and 1 Geo. 5, c. 19. Where an alderman is mayor or chairman he may give a casting vote in the event of an equality of votes in his character as mayor or chairman. A mayor or chairman, unless disqualified, may also give an original vote in addition to a casting vote. Section 60, 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy amongst the aldermen of a municipal or county borough is fixed by the mayor, subject to the election being held within 14 days after notice in writing of the vacancy has been given to the mayor or town clerk by two burgesses. Section 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. The election cannot be held, however, on the same day as the resignation of an alderman has been accepted by the council. Section 230 (1) 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Mayor.

The ordinary day of election of a mayor is November 9th, annually. Sections 15 and 61 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. The date of election of a mayor to fill a casual vacancy is fixed by the town clerk, but it must be held within 14 days after notice in writing of the vacancy has been given to the town clerk by two burgesses. Sects. 40 and 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Elective Auditor.

The ordinary day of election of elective auditors is the first of March, annually, or such other day as the council, with the approval of the Ministry of Health, from time to time appoints. Sections 25 and 62 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Casual vacancies are dealt with in the same way as casual vacancies in the office of councillor. Sects. 40 and 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

(In the election of Elective Auditors each elector can give one vote only. Even though there may be two Labour candidates for two separate offices a Labour elector can only vote for one of them. Section 62 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.)

Metropolitan Boroughs.

The dates for ordinary elections to these authorities are as follows:—

Councillors	..	November 1st.
Aldermen	..	November 9th.
Mayors	..	November 9th annually.

Section 3 (2) and (3) 62 and 63 Vict., c. 14.

By Section 2 (8) 62 and 63 Vict., c. 14, the Ministry of Health may make an order providing for the election of councillors every three years instead of annually if a Council pass a resolution making the request by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting at a meeting of the Council duly convened for the purpose, provided that such majority is not less than the majority of the whole Council. The order may be rescinded in the same way.

(It should be noted that the elections for Metropolitan Borough Councillors are now held every third year.)

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy in the office of Councillor of a Metropolitan Borough is fixed by the Clerk. It must be held within one month after notice in writing of the vacancy has been given to the mayor or to the town clerk

by two councillors, or, in the case of vacancy by resignation, disqualification or absence, within one month of the office becoming vacant. But no election to fill a casual vacancy shall be held which occurs within six months before the ordinary day of retirement from the office in which the vacancy occurs. Metropolitan Borough Councillors' Election Order, 1903, Schedule V.

Casual vacancies in the office of Mayor, or Aldermen of Metropolitan Boroughs are filled in the same manner as those for Municipal Boroughs. (See page 57.) Sects. 40 and 66, 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

County Councils.

The ordinary day for the election of County Councillors is such day between the first and the eighth day of March, as the County Council may fix, in every third year. If the Council do not fix a date the election is held on the eighth day of March in every third year. Sect. 1 (1) 54 and 55 Vict., c. 68. Where a County Council desires to fix a date for the election it must do so not less than the six weeks before the eighth of March. Section 1 (4) 54 and 55 Vict., c. 68.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy amongst County Councillors is fixed by the Chairman and is subject to the same conditions as for Borough Councillors. Section 2, 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41, and Sects. 40 and 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50. But no election shall be held to fill a casual vacancy if it occurs within six months before the ordinary date for the retirement of county councillors. Sect. 1 (4) 54 and 55 Vict., c. 68.

The ordinary day for the election of County Aldermen is the 16th day of March or such other day within ten days of the eighth of March as the County Council may from time to time fix in the same year as the County Councillors retire. Sect. 1 (3) 54 and 55 Vict., c. 68.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy amongst County Aldermen is fixed in the same way as for Borough Aldermen. Sect. 2, 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41, and Sects. 40, 66 and 230 (1) 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

The ordinary day for the election of a Chairman of a County Council is the same as for County Aldermen. Sect. 1 (3) 54 and 55 Vict., c. 68. But in any year when County Councillors are not due to retire the election may be held on any

day in March, April or May fixed by the County Council. Sect. 2, 63 and 64 Vict., c. 13.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy in the office of Chairman is fixed in the same manner as for a Mayor. Section 2, 51 and 52 Vict., c. 41, and Sect. 66 of 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

Parish Councils.

Parish Councillors are elected at a parish meeting held in every third year on the first Monday after March 10th, or, if the first Monday in April is Easter Monday, on the first Monday after March 3rd, or in either case such day not earlier than the preceding Saturday or later than the following Wednesday, as may be fixed by the County Council for special reasons. Sect. 48, 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73. Sect. 1, 62 and 63 Vict., c. 10. Parish Councillors' Election Order, 1901, Rule 1 and Schedule 1.

The election is made by show of hands and counted by the chairman. Subject to a Poll being demanded, he declares to be elected the persons who have obtained the largest number of votes. Rule 12 and 13, Parish Councillors' Election Order, 1901.

A Poll of the electors may then be demanded and if not less than five electors or one-third of those present, whichever number is least, support it, the chairman must direct that a Poll be taken. A Poll need not be granted if it is demanded by a smaller number of electors unless the Chairman assents. A demand for a Poll may be withdrawn before the close of the meeting. Rule 14 and 15, Parish Councillors' Election Order, 1901.

On a casual vacancy arising amongst Parish Councillors it is filled by the Council, and a meeting must be convened forthwith for that purpose. Sect. 47 (4), and Rule 2 of Part 2 of Schedule 1, 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

The Chairman of a Parish Council is elected at the Annual Meeting of the Council held on or within seven days of the 15th of April in each year. Sect. 3 (8), Schedule 1, Part 2, Rule 3, 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73, and Sect. 1, 62 and 63 Vict., c. 10. Casual vacancies are filled at a meeting of the Council. Sect. 47 (4) and Schedule 1, Part 11, Rule 2, 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73.

**Rural District Councils, Urban District Councils, and
Boards of Guardians.**

The ordinary day for the election of members of these bodies is the first Monday in April, or, if that is Easter Monday, the last Monday in March; or, in either case, such other day not being earlier than the preceding Saturday, or later than the following Wednesday, as may for special reasons be fixed by the County Council. Rule 2 and the First Schedule of the respective Election Orders, dated 1898.

The elections for these authorities are held yearly unless on their application the County Council has agreed to a simultaneous retirement every third year of their membership. Sect. 20 (6) and 24 (4), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73. The County Council has now power on application being made by these bodies to rescind a former order providing for simultaneous election for their whole membership. Sect. 1, 63 and 64, Vict., c. 16.

The day of election to fill a casual vacancy amongst the members of the aforesaid authorities is fixed by the respective clerks. The election is to be held within one month after notice in writing of the vacancy has been given to the chairman or to the clerk by two councillors. But nothing in the Act shall authorise or require a returning officer to hold an election to fill a casual vacancy which occurs within six months before the ordinary day of retirement from the office in which the vacancy occurs. Sections 40 and 66 of 45 and 66 Vict., c. 50, as amended by Schedule V. of the various Election Orders concerning these authorities.

**County Council and the Removal of Difficulties in
connection with Elections under the Local Gov-
ernment Act, 1894.**

If any difficulty arises with respect to any election of parish or district councillors or of guardians, or to the first meeting after any ordinary election of such councillors or guardians, or if, from an election not being held, or being defective, or otherwise, the council or board has not been properly constituted, the county council may by order make any appointment or do anything which appears to them necessary or expedient for the proper holding of any such election

or meeting, and properly constituting the council or board, and may, if it appears to them necessary, direct the holding of an election or meeting, and fix the dates for any such election or meeting Sect. 1, 59 Vict., c. 1.

NOMINATIONS.

Parish Councillors.

The nominations for the election of a Parish Councillor must be made in writing and must state the surname and other name or names in full of the candidate, and his or her place of abode and description, and whether he or she is qualified as a Local Government Elector or by residence. The paper must be signed by two Local Government Electors of the parish or ward as proposer and seconder. The paper when completed must be handed to the chairman of the parish meeting especially called for the ordinary election of parish councillors. Rules 5 and 6 of the Parish Councillors' Election Order, 1901.

NOTE.—The names of the proposer and seconder, as they appear on the nomination paper, must correspond in names and spelling with those appearing on the Register of Electors.

Rural District Councillors, Guardians, Urban District Councillors.

Nominations for these offices are made in the same way as for Parish Councillors, except that the nomination paper must be handed to the Clerk not later than twelve o'clock at noon on the Thursday following the day on which the notice of election is given.

The notice of election is given not later than the second Friday in March, or, if the first Monday in April is Easter Monday, the first Friday in March. See Schedule I. of the respective Election Orders.

Metropolitan Borough Councillors.

Nominations for these offices are made in the same way as for Parish Councillors, except that the nomination paper must be delivered to the Town Clerk concerned not later than twelve o'clock at noon on the tenth day before the day of election. Metropolitan Borough Councillors' Election Order, 1903, Schedule 1.

Municipal and County Borough Councillors, County Councillors.

So far as the Candidate, Proposer and Secunder are concerned, the nomination paper is to be filled up in the same way as for Parish Councillors, except that the qualification is omitted, but for these offices the nomination paper must be signed by eight other electors as assenters to the nomination. The paper, when completed, must be handed to the Town Clerk or Clerk not later than 5 p.m. of the last day for delivery of nomination papers, that is to say, seven days at least before the day of election. Rule 7, Part 2, Third Schedule 45 and 46 Vict., c. 50.

NOTE.—Nomination forms are provided by the clerks of the various local authorities free of charge.

ELECTION EXPENSES.**Municipal and County Boroughs ; County Councils.**

Except in the case of an election of a Councillor, no expenses may be incurred by or on behalf of a candidate at an election on account of or in respect of the conduct or management of such an election.

The expenses incurred in an election of a Councillor are limited to the following extent:—The sum of twenty-five pounds, and if the number of electors in the borough or ward exceeds five hundred, an additional amount of threepence for each elector above the first five hundred electors.

Any candidate or agent of a candidate or person who knowingly acts in contravention of this section is guilty of an illegal practice.

Where two or more candidates at an election are running jointly the maximum for each person is reduced by one-fourth, or if there are more than two joint candidates, by one-third. Section 5 (1), (2), (3), 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

Time for paying Expenses and sending in Returns.

Persons having claims against a candidate or his agent must send them in within fourteen days after the day of election, otherwise they are barred and cannot be paid.

All claims and accounts received by a candidate or his agent must be paid within twenty-one days after the day of election.

A candidate or his agent making a payment in contravention of this section is guilty of an illegal practice.

An application may, however, be made to the County Court for the district in which the election was held, or to the High Court, by the candidate or a creditor, to allow a claim to be paid after the time limit mentioned above.

Where a candidate has not been acting as his own agent his agent must make a return to him in writing of all expenses incurred within twenty-three days after the day of the election. The penalty for failing to do so is a sum not exceeding fifty pounds.

Every candidate at an election, whether successful or not, must send in a return of the whole of his expenses to the Town Clerk within twenty-eight days after the day of election, accompanied by vouchers for sums over one pound and a declaration by the candidate made before a Justice of the Peace in a form set forth in the fourth Schedule of Municipal Elections (Corrupt and Illegal Practices) Act, 1884, or to the like effect.

If a candidate does not make a return he is guilty of an illegal practice. If a candidate makes a false return he may be convicted of wilful and corrupt perjury, and he shall be deemed to be guilty of a corrupt practice. Relief may, however, be given by the High Court against the consequences of failure to comply with the law in certain cases.

A candidate who fails to make a return cannot, if he is successful, sit or vote in the council until he has made the return and declaration. If he does so he will forfeit the sum of fifty pounds for every day on which he so sits and votes to any person who sues for the same.

The return and declaration sent to the Town Clerk must be kept at his office during twelve months next after they are received by him, when they may be destroyed or returned to a candidate at his request.

During the time the return and declaration are in the hands of the Town Clerk they are open to inspection by any person on payment of the fee of one shilling, and copies may be supplied to any person at a fee of twopence for every seventy-two words. Section 21, 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

Other Authorities.

In the case of all other local Government Authorities mentioned in this section of the Handbook, there is no limit to the amount that may be spent in the election of a councillor, nor is there a limit within which time the expenses have to be paid, nor is it necessary to make a return or declaration of expenses to the respective clerks. Section 48 (3b), 56 and 57 Vict., c. 73, and Section 37, 47 and 48 Vict., c. 70.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION.

MACHINERY FOR LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION.

Under Section 1 of the Education Act of 1902 it is provided that the Council of every County and County Borough shall be the local education authority for all forms of education, and that the Council of every Borough with a population exceeding 10,000 and an Urban District Council with a population exceeding 20,000 shall have control over elementary education.

Every Council has an Education Committee whose constitution must be approved by the Board of Education and whose powers are not limited otherwise than by the Standing Orders of its own Council except in the realm of finance. It may not raise a rate or borrow money. The power of co-option on this Committee though granted, is exceptional; and it is laid down that those co-opted must have a knowledge of local needs or some educational experience. The majority of the Committee in any case must be composed of councillors, but County Councils are not bound by this rule.

Local Education Authorities are given the freedom to co-operate with authorities inside or outside their own district. Two or more may, with the consent of the Board of Education, form a federation, or may appoint a Joint Committee exercising the powers delegated to it. Minor education authorities, *i.e.*, Borough and Urban District Councils, may at any time give their power over elementary education into the hands of the County Council, or for the furtherance of some special educational object they may relinquish their control over any particular school or institution in favour of the County Council.

School Managers are appointed for all public elementary schools, the method of appointment and the powers given differing according to whether the school is provided or non-provided. In the case of a provided school, Borough or Urban District Councils appoint a number of managers according to the needs of the school. If the County Council controls the school, it appoints four managers and the minor authority not more than two. The Local Authority may delegate such powers as it likes to the managers. In the case of non-provided schools there must be not more than four Foundation Managers, and not more than two appointed by the Local Education Authority. Of these two it may be necessary for one to be appointed by the minor local authority and one by the County Borough or County Council. The local authority has no power over the religious instruction which may be given in these latter schools, but the managers must comply with the requirements of the local authority for secular education.

The Board of Education has no constitutional relationships with the local authorities, that is, in the sense of taking any share in the local education machinery. Following the general practice in England, the central government lays down a certain minimum of efficiency (in this case through the educational code and Building Rules) which must be reached before a grant of money will be given towards expenses. This grant is such a necessity in local finance that the control of it, and the inspection which precedes the giving of it, ensures sufficient control and homogeneous organisation. Outside this minimum local councils are left entirely free to incur what expenditure they like, subject however to the need of having the Board's permission to raise a loan to cover debt. The details of the Board's control will have to be dealt with in the course of the detailed explanation of local activity; but these few principles indicate the foundation on which the educational structure is erected.

CLASSIFICATION OF POWERS AND DUTIES ACCORDING TO TYPE OF SERVICE RENDERED.

A local authority is empowered to acquire land and buildings for schools, and may, if necessary, obtain a compulsory order for this purpose if the Board agrees. In cases where a compulsory order is required the Board must investigate whether

the land is suitable, and if there is local opposition, a public enquiry must be held. No parliamentary sanction is required for the obtaining of this compulsory order unless the land has archaeological interest, belongs to any local authority, has been acquired for public use, is required for dwelling houses, or unless the order disregards the result of the public enquiry. Local Authorities must submit plans for school buildings to the Board for its sanction, before they are put into operation.

The Board holds local education authorities responsible for the cleanliness and repair of schools under their control, and also for the general school equipment. Structural alterations need the Board's consent, and rules are laid down as to the size of class-rooms and the number of square feet which must be allowed for each child.

Teachers are appointed and dismissed by the written order of the local education authority. This applies, of course, only to provided schools. In non-provided schools the education authority has complete control only in the sphere of the secular education given by the teachers. Any temporary staffing is controlled by the local authority.

Local authorities have, from time to time, been given very wide powers as to the policy they may adopt in various educational spheres. These powers may be exercised either directly under Act of Parliament, or indirectly by the passing of bye-laws by the local authority under an Act of Parliament. County Councils and County Borough Councils have control of so-called higher education, that is, education other than elementary, but the minor authorities are limited in the aid they may give to higher education to the extent of the proceeds of a rd. rate. The first Act to lay any obligation on local authorities as to the provision of higher education was that of 1918.

By Section 3 of this Act they are ordered to draw up schemes for the general organisation of post-elementary education, and these schemes if approved by the Board were thereupon to become compulsory. In view of the fact that the Labour Party's policy is "Secondary Education for All," it is necessary to make an examination into one or two schemes suggested, or put into operation by education authorities, before passing on to a detailed classification of all the different powers local authorities can adopt under the general heading

of "policy." The awakening desire of the working classes to give their children a better education than they had themselves, is shown by the fact that in 1923, 150,000 children stayed on in elementary schools after the age of compulsory attendance had been reached. All the signs point to an increase of this figure in 1924. It only remains for local authorities to provide the opportunities by which this latent demand may become effective.

CARLISLE AND BECKENHAM SCHEMES.

Local authorities may direct their attention to Carlisle and Kent for an indication as to future lines of development in education, primary and secondary. The Carlisle Education Committee has already started its scheme, while the Beckenham authority proposes, subject to the Board's consent, to commence its scheme on August 1st of this year (1924). In Carlisle elementary education has virtually been abolished, and in its place there has been erected a system of preparatory education with junior and senior schools leading up to a well-organised secondary education for all normally intelligent children. The fees in the secondary schools are to be £6 to £8 per annum, and there is to be the usual provision of free places. Unfortunately the Board has not been able to see its way to grant that secondary education shall be immediately made gratuitous. For those children whose general ability indicates a leaning towards practical activity and who would be unlikely to benefit from secondary education, the Council has decided to develop its senior schools along advanced technological lines.

Beckenham's scheme is similar to that of Carlisle. It is proposed to divide the senior departments (*i.e.*, ages 11½ to 14) into two sections A and B. Section A is to contain children who will profit by advanced education and who intend to stay at school longer than the compulsory period, and section B is to be composed of children who will leave at the end of the compulsory period. Beckenham intends, like Carlisle, to give this latter section a practical basis, but they definitely lay it down as a principle on which they intend to work, that the connection between the two sections will be quite fluid, and that they will rely on experience to show how and when to transfer pupils from one to the other. From

these two sections children will be sent to either secondary or central schools. The entrance to the secondary is by examination, but Beckenham asks for the supplementing of examination results by the school record system in order to prevent cramming. Children will stay in the central schools until they are fifteen, but transference from these to secondary schools is provided for.

Other authorities who have, since the Labour Government has come into office, started to draw up progressive schemes are London, the West Riding, Bath, Glamorgan, Rutland County, Northampton and Leicester.

In general it may be said that we need a clear-sighted policy whereby provision is made for: (1) those who can profit by being sent to schools aiming at education finishing with the University; (2) those who need a general education finishing about 16; (3) those who need a "biased" Commercial or technological education at 16 or 18; (4) those whose education has to be on the less intelligent, *e.g.*, more repetition lines.

Besides a control of secondary schools, local authorities can provide or aid many varied types of schools, continuation schools, technical schools and polytechnics, evening schools and schools of art. Continuation schools were to be provided under the Education Act of 1918, but in the economy campaign which followed shortly afterwards, the order went forth that all schemes were to be dropped unless they were actually being worked, with the result that there are now only two areas which have adopted the continuation school scheme, and they are London and Birmingham. Continuation schools were to have been free, part time, and the curriculum non-vocational. The technical schools and polytechnics very often provide part time or full time vocational instruction, and they are usually not entirely free. Local authorities controlling these institutions usually remit part or whole of the fees in certain cases. The Regulations for Technical Schools (including Evening Schools, Schools of Art, etc.) laying down courses, hours, general outline of curriculum, and other rules the non-observance of which would mean the loss of the grant, are given in Cd. 9152.

**ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES OF LOCAL
EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITIES.**

The local authorities have a very wide field of activity open to them in the miscellaneous services they may perform in order that the children attending their schools may be in a position to derive full benefit from the course of instruction ; and as these services are, as a rule, not compulsory, much may be done by progressive councils to give a lead to those showing little enterprise. The best known of these miscellaneous services is the *feeding of school children* under Section 1 of the 1906 Act and Section 2 of the Act of 1914. This work may be taken on by the Education Authority itself, or in conjunction with a voluntary School Canteen Committee. Meals are only to be given to children who definitely need them, and the cost is charged up to the parents and is recoverable from them as a civil debt. In connection with this question of the general health of school children may be mentioned the invaluable work performed by school medical officers. Though the medical inspection of children is compulsory, many doctors have given very able advice to Councils as to general improvements, one of the most important of these being the encouragement of the provision of facilities for open-air teaching. By Section 21 of the Act of 1918, the local education authorities may, with the consent of the Board, make provision for those children whose homes are a long way from the school, or are not fit for the children to be living in, by arranging suitable board and lodging. Also by Section 23 of the 1902 Act they may arrange for the conveyance of children or teachers to the school, or may pay their fares.

Another most important of these adoptive powers is that of *helping children to find suitable employment*, and this question is being very widely discussed at the present time, because after March, 1924, if local education authorities undertake duties under Section 1 of the 1910 Choice of Employment Act, and Section 22 of the Act of 1918, they must at the same time undertake, under an approved scheme, the administration of the Unemployment Insurance Acts to persons under eighteen years of age according to Section 107 of the Act of 1921. Many Councils have refused to undertake this valuable work on account of the financial responsibilities involved.

EDUCATION WEEKS.

Several local authorities, among them may be mentioned Northampton, Derby and Wolverhampton, have started a policy of holding "Education Weeks." The schools are opened to parents and visitors who may come and watch the children at work. This sort of propaganda is invaluable as a means of interesting the parents in the children's work and inculcating into the community a greater desire to have more efficient education and a raising of the school age. The co-operation of local authorities with voluntary associations is encouraged by various education Acts and by the Board itself. Especially is this so in the case of nursery schools and schools for mothers. There are no provisions empowering the local education authorities to maintain these institutions, but grants are given by the Board if they are run in accordance with certain rules as to efficiency and management, and account is taken of the methods of co-operation with the local authorities concerned. (Under the term "further powers") is also included the management of special schools for defective children. The local education authority decides whether the children are defective or not and these children must remain at school until the end of the term in which they are sixteen.

Reformatory and Industrial schools may be provided by any local education authority; but the central authority in this case is the Home Office. Most of the regulations for these schools are contained in the Act of 1908 dealing with Reformatory and Industrial Schools.

THE CURRICULUM.

The elementary schools of the past have trained the children of the social classes which are dependent mainly on incomes received weekly.

They have given instruction based on a curriculum outlined in the Code of the Board of Education and in which the acquirement of a firm grip on the 3 R's., together with a minimum of useful knowledge (*e.g.*, Needlework for Girls and Drawing for Boys), stand out prominently. Since the beginning of the century this curriculum has been widened (1) through increased attention given to humanistic studies—English Literature, History and the new interpretation of Geography; (2) by pushing subjects like Mathematics to a

more advanced stage; (3) by addition of subjects such as Cookery and Laundry for Girls and Handwork and Gardening for Boys; and (4) by engaging teachers with a fuller and deeper training while at College.

Within the same period a great development of Secondary Schools following a curriculum which aims at continued education in Universities has taken place and some provision has been made through scholarships and free places for the transfer of those children who are qualified to take advantage of such training from Elementary to higher schools. And in some places children who desire to enter occupations at 15 to 16 years of age are selected by examination or otherwise and transferred to schools specially equipped and staffed where a curriculum giving an advanced and general education is followed, though biased to a small extent in the direction of industry or commerce.

These schools, formerly termed "Higher" Elementary Schools, and to-day Central Schools, are free. They differ from the Secondary School so called in that the curriculum is based on a leaving age of 16 and not 18, the assumption being that practically everybody leaves at that age. In the Secondary School many leave at that age without completing the course the school is following. The majority achieve the aim which is put before the Central School: in the Secondary Schools only the few manage to stay on long enough to achieve their aims since the majority of pupils drop out by the way.

Education should provide training and encouragement for every individual to make the most of his natural gifts, using them to the full for the advantage of the mixed community in which he lives. But in developing schemes for this purpose education cannot entirely neglect the idea of preparing individuals to earn their own living. Such preparation must be prolonged where certain occupations are in mind, though in all cases education should be long enough to show children how rightly to use their leisure time. University training is needed for those who are to become doctors or lawyers, ministers or higher civil servants, and for the researchers in nearly every direction. But for the practical world of industry and commerce contact with actual practice at an earlier age and further instruction in the directions which the works and the shops suggest give an education more suited to the needs

of the community. In agriculture research is plainly needed : but the farming class will probably still continue their work on the recognised principle of trial and error.

It would seem that, for the vast majority of pupils at present, 16 is the highest age to which continuous schooling can be extended with real profit.

The Northern Universities have devised a school certificate of the standing of Matriculation and the Oxford and Cambridge Locals suited to 3 types of training up to the age of 16 (*a*) one in academic subjects to be followed by further study preparatory to entering the University ; (*b*) one in which the same subjects for the most part are taken, but the Mathematics, Science and allied subjects are coloured by an outlook towards engineering occupations ; and (*c*) a third type in which the outlook is towards clerical occupations.

Such provision by Universities situated in the industrial parts of England indicates a need for different types of schools for pupils between 11 or 12 and 16, and where possible a choice of curricula within the bigger schools themselves. Variety of schools otherwise may be secured, *e.g.*, the Central School has hitherto stood for free education, all the pupils coming from elementary schools and a mixture of social types being secured through competition for admission. The Secondary School of the first Grade with a comparatively high fee has catered for the children of the middle class—a small admixture being secured by means of scholarships and free places. In the Municipal Secondary School it often happens that the majority of the children have spent part of their previous school-time in the elementary schools. The mixing of the social classes must not be stopped by too rapid changes in the organisation of education. The principle of selection for transfer of children from the elementary to Central and Secondary Schools is needed in order to give the brighter intellects enough mental exercise of a suitable kind.

For the majority of children between 12 and 15 not so passing to selected schools an all-round scheme of general education, including practical subjects, is desirable. Vocational training is no longer thought suitable for children. But training of children for the last 2 or 3 years of their school-life by teachers who understand the needs of industry and commerce and know equally how to incorporate them in a general

scheme is a very different thing. The Board of Education insists on Senior and Central schools being staffed by trained certificated teachers and not by persons whose training has been only at the bench.

The 1918 Education Act made it possible for elementary schools to be differentiated according to the capacities of children and the curriculum can be varied accordingly. Where thought desirable, a large proportion of the time can be devoted to subjects in which "doing" takes the place of "book-study." Or again, the curriculum can be sub-divided into three heads,—

Humanistic studies	..Literature and History, Drawing and Art Appreciation.
Applied studies	..Geography, Mathematics, Science, Handwork and Domestic Subjects.
Subjects of communal interest	Hygiene and Physical Exercises, Singing. Outdoor studies and Visits to places of interest.

Differentiation of curricula, with aims varying according to environment and the capacities of the pupils, will be all the more necessary when schools for children of 11 or 12 to 15 are established on all sides—schools in which it may be assumed that the elements of knowledge have been gained before entry and progress is possible by study carefully developed along lines leading to particular goals.

The Board lays down a general outline of the curriculum required in elementary and secondary schools in its Grant Regulations. This is generally understood to be a minimum and Councils are expected to see that the curriculum in these schools is kept up to date, is comprehensive and suited to the needs of the locality. The most modern examples of the necessity for keeping up to date with the curriculum is provided by the courses of Empire study given in many elementary schools to-day. The Board itself has sent to the local authorities a scheme of Empire study which they suggest should precede a visit to the British Empire Exhibition. The Board has authorised these visits and has promised grants to the extent of 50 per cent. of the cost for secondary school children

and 20 per cent. of the cost for elementary school children. According to Circular 1327 no child is to be prevented from going by reason of the inability of its parents to contribute to the cost. The local authority if left free, however, to adopt this course of action or not as it pleases. Many Councils having control of schools in agricultural areas have instituted courses in agricultural subjects.

In this connection, the action of the Kent Authority in starting a course of beekeeping in schools may be specially mentioned. The Kent Education Authority has also conceived the original idea of providing musical education for its school children. Tours by concert parties are arranged, an entertainment being given to the children during the day, and to the public in the evening, the proceeds of the latter entertainment meeting the expenses.

The school in some places may become the centre of a revival of local interests for the whole community and not the children alone. For example, some local Education Authorities have set up Rural Community Councils in order to enliven and enrich village life.

A similar extension of educational activities is the provision in London and some other cities for giving financial assistance in order to send children into the country for certain periods with their teachers on school journeys. Some Authorities, such as Sunderland, have several permanent camps which are maintained for this purpose.

ADULT EDUCATION.

Local Authorities are empowered to help in University and Adult Education by Section 2 of 1902 Act and Section 1 of 1918 Act. County Councils and County Borough Councils are naturally most active in this sphere, the minor authorities being limited to the proceeds of a penny rate. Scholarships may be given, lectures and university courses aided, summer schools organised, libraries provided. A few specific examples of work done by local authorities in this direction will give an indication as to the possibilities of future work.

Warwickshire Education Committee has appointed two full-time lecturers to give one-year courses, for which of course the authority accepts financial responsibility. The Kent Education Authority organises summer schools. The College

for Working Women at Beckenham, though it draws its students from all over the country, enlists the support of several of the surrounding authorities. The Kent Authority appoints a member of the Council and it offers a bursary for Kent students. Two other authorities also offer bursaries for women in their own areas. Glamorgan has arranged for special lectures on mining explosives, in view of the immense number of accidents in the mines in the district. Wolverhampton provides Home Training Courses for Unemployed Women. Many local authorities contribute to education Conferences. They are allowed to spend two guineas for any one conference or two shillings per inhabitant in their area. Co-operation with voluntary bodies in this sphere of education has brought about many fruitful results. The authorities co-operate between themselves by means of Joint Committees, and also obtain representation on the managing Committees of voluntary bodies. A typical example is that of University Tutorial Classes which are provided by the Workers' Educational Association, and the responsibility for which is shared by the University and in two cases by local education authorities. In Yorkshire there is an Adult Education Joint Committee, the responsibility being shared by the Huddersfield Technical College, the West Riding Education Authority and the Yorkshire District of the W.E.A. Local education authorities often give grants or allow the free use of rooms for lectures and courses without assuming any share in responsibility. Minor local authorities are given the duty by Section 2, 1 (c) of 1918 Act of providing in conjunction with County Councils and County Borough Councils, for the supply and training of teachers. Education authorities thus have an interest in the maintenance of Training Colleges for Teachers.

EDUCATION FINANCE.

The following are the sources of income for educational purposes obtainable by a County Council or County Borough Council:—(1) Grants from the Board of Education or the Home Office (Industrial Schools), grants for higher education given to County Councils by the Ministry of Health by Customs and Excise Act 1890 ("whisky money"), and grants under the Agricultural Rates Act. (2) Contributions from other authorities for special schools for children from Guardians for Poor Law Children, and from parents of children

in special schools or for school feeding. (3) Fees. (4) Endowments. (5) Loans; and (6) the proceeds from the rates which are the most important source of income. Minor Local education authorities receive no "Whisky Money," and are limited as has been mentioned to a penny rate for higher education; but otherwise they are in the same position as County and County Borough Councils. Grants from the Board of Education have been indicated in dealing with the various spheres of educational activity, and as has been seen, they cover all expenditure on all education recognised by the Board.

Expenditure by Local Education Authorities in England and Wales for 1924-25 is estimated at £58,250,000 for elementary and £12,060,000 for higher education, making a total of £70,310,000. The total grant to Local Education Authorities will amount to £37,490,074. This is less by £766,926 than it was last year, partly owing to the decline in births which has caused school attendance to fall, in spite of the recent extension of the age limit.

The cost per child, in elementary education, falling on grants and rates for 1922-23 was £11 7s. 6d., of which about £8 4s. 4d., is the cost of teachers' salaries, assuming an average attendance of 5,134,335. For 1923-24 cost per child will be about £11 5s. 6d.

The expenditure from the Exchequer on all forms of Education in England and Wales for 1923-24 was £44,941,332. (See Cmd. 2148, price 6d. Memo. on Estimates.)

STATISTICS OF EDUCATION.

Elementary Education.

For England and Wales the *average attendance* for the three years 1920-21, 1921-22, and 1922-23, was 5,215,863; 5,189,107; and 5,141,461. The actual number of *teachers* in England and Wales for 1921-22 was 165,772, of whom 118,026 were certificated and 12,898 supplementary.

Secondary Schools.

In England in 1922-23 there were 1,129 schools with 331,820 pupils regarded as eligible for grant, and in addition 321 other schools with 53,695 pupils, recognised by the Board as efficient.

EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

The Scottish Education Department, constituted under the Act of 1872 as a Committee of the Privy Council, is the Central Department concerned with education in Scotland, and the Secretary for Scotland is the responsible political head under the Act of 1885. The Office of the Department is at Dover House, Whitehall, London, S.W. 1.

The functions performed by the Central Department are similar to those performed for England and Wales by the Board of Education and there is also an Advisory Council representative of Education Authorities, Universities, Teachers business, labour and other interests under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918. The same Act makes the County the Local Education area instead of the parish or burgh, but four large burghs—Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee—remain separate as education areas. The Education Authority for each area is specially elected for three years and has no connection with the County or Town Council. School Management Committees assist the Education Authority in the supervision of schools or groups of schools, and these committees include, beside representatives of the Education Authority representatives of parents and teachers.

General finance and the appointment and payment of teachers is in the hands of the Education Authority which is required by Section 25 of the Act to establish a Local Advisory Council.

Under the Universities (Scotland) Act, 1889, the Scottish Universities are given control of their own administration, and there are also 16 central institutions for technical instruction under the management of public bodies on which the Education Authorities are represented. These institutions are largely supported by grants administered by the Central Education Department.

The National Committee for the Training of Teachers was established by a minute of the Department (10th February, 1920), but the management of the Training Centres is delegated to Provincial Committees representing the National Committee, the University Court and the teachers.

In Scotland the average number of pupils on the register for 1922-23 was 843,143, a decrease of about 18,600 from the previous year, of whom about 673,124 were in Primary schools.

Schools.

The general rules in regard to school attendance are similar to those in England and Wales. Attendance is compulsory between the ages of five and fourteen, but the Act of 1918, Section 14, provides for the extension of the leaving age to fifteen, after the appointed day for the operation of this section has been fixed by the Department. Education Authorities may exempt children over twelve years of age from further attendance or may authorise part time attendance. The Scottish Board of Health supervises the medical inspection and supervision of school children. Under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, meals may be supplied to pupils, but the cost of food must not be drawn from public funds unless the child is shown by medical inspection, or otherwise, to be unable to take full advantage of the school. In such cases the child must be fed, but unless its lack of food is found to be due to the poverty or ill-health of the parents, the expenditure is recovered from the parents, who are proceeded against for neglect.

All State-aided schools are open to children of all denominations, and school-managers may continue the custom of giving religious instruction to children whose parents do not object. The Education Authority may secure for any school that form of religious instruction which is most acceptable to the parents concerned, but such instruction must take place at the beginning or the end of the school day, and any child may be withdrawn by its parents from this instruction. Almost all denominational schools, formerly grant-aided, have been transferred to the Education Authority, and the continuance of their particular forms of religious instruction is provided for.

The Primary School.

This grade generally includes an Infants' Division (under 7 years of age), a Junior Division (7—9), and a Senior Division (9—12). At the age of 12 or thereabouts, known as the qualifying stage, a pupil may arrange for leaving school at 14, or for a definite course of three more years, or a full secondary course. Each education area has a bursary scheme, which provides assistance to pupils who would otherwise be unable to continue their education, and this assistance may be continued throughout the subsequent course at a University or other approved educational institution.

Secondary Schools.

These provide for education as in England and Wales, but in addition to the schools maintained by local authorities there are certain endowed schools which conform to general regulations and receive grants from the Department.

Continuation Schools.

These are maintained by Education Authorities in the period from autumn to spring, and generally in the evenings. These include classes for the completion of elementary education, for specialised instruction, and auxiliary classes mainly recreational. There are some courses extending over three years which deal with specialised instruction.

Special Schools.

An account of special schools for defective children is given in the Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland, 1922-23, and 1923-24.

Training of Teachers.

The various courses of training for teachers are designed to secure contact with University teaching at all possible points. On the completion of training a Probation Certificate is granted which is replaced by a Teachers' Certificate after two years of satisfactory teaching. All certificates are issued by the Education Department. Education Authorities are required by the Act of 1918 to submit for approval of the Department a scheme of scales of salaries for teachers, and the conditions for minimum national scales are laid down in the Department's Minute of 12th August, 1919. The scales actually adopted by Education Authorities are generally in excess of the prescribed minima the lowest of which are, for men £150-250, and for women £130-200 per annum. The scheme for superannuation is similar to that in England. Teachers must retire at 65, and may retire at 60, or earlier if disabled for teaching.

Finance.

The National Fund which is used for education in Scotland is known as the Education (Scotland) Fund constituted by the Act of 1908 from certain monies within the local taxation account, but by the Act of 1918 it was decided that the sums

specially voted by Parliament should be paid annually into that Fund. The amount of the Scottish vote is automatically determined by the figure of Scottish expenditure in the standard year 1913-14, and by the annual fluctuation of demands made on the Vote for education in England and Wales, for by the Act of 1918, any increase in the educational expenditure of England and Wales over that of 1913-14, entitles Scotland to receive an additional Vote amounting to $\frac{1}{4}$ ths of the increase. The Local Education Fund is derived from rates which the Education Authority receives from the levies of the parish council.

GENERAL OUTLOOK.

Improvements under Labour Government.

Since Mr. Trevelyan became Minister for Education he has radically altered the atmosphere in which education authorities have been working since the issue of Circular 1190, the epitome of retrogressive educational policy. In April, Circular 1328 was issued, encouraging Councils to bring forward schemes for a general progressive educational policy, which the Board will consider "on their merits."

During the economy régime the local authorities were given instructions not to exceed 25 per cent. of free places in secondary schools unless they had already done so. Mr. Trevelyan has empowered the local authorities to raise this percentage to 40, and has declared that he will consider proposals for the total abolition of fees in secondary schools when local authorities are ready to put them forward.

In Circular 1324, not only are the local authorities informed that their practical objective is to be the limiting of classes to 50 children (based not on an average attendance but on the number of children on the register), but they are also warned that in building or altering, they will not be allowed to construct schoolrooms to hold more than 40 children (for children of 11 and upwards) or 50 children (up to eleven). The Labour policy has also been that of preventing the employment of any but qualified women teachers, whereas that of the Conservative Government has been definitely to encourage this. The Board announces also in this connection that before paying the grant it will make investigations as to the proportion of certificated teachers on the staff.

The Conservative policy of limiting the amount of grant payable in respect of school feeding has been reversed by the Labour Government, the President announcing on the 14th February in the House that he would not retain a specific limit to school feeding expenses when computing the grant.

Local authorities are being encouraged to make use of the power of making bye-laws under the Act of 1918, Section 8, sub-section 2, to raise the school-leaving age compulsorily from 14 to 15.

All educationalists will welcome Mr. Trevelyan's attempts to break down conservative opposition on local councils, but it still remains for progressive councillors to raise an agitation for improvement. Nothing can be done by the central government unless councils are willing to take the initial step forward themselves.

Books and Pamphlets. Labour Party Publications :—

Secondary Education for All, a policy for Labour,
edited by R. H. Tawney. 2s. 6d. ; paper 1s.

Staffing in Public Elementary Schools. Price 1s.

Education and Training of Teachers. Price 6d.

Official Reports.

Report of Board of Education for 1922-23. Cmd. 2179.
Price 5s.

Report of Committee of Council for Education in
Scotland 1923-24. Cmd. 2174. Price 9d.

Memorandum on Board of Education Estimates for
1924-25. Cmd. 2148. Price 6d.

HOUSING

The Law relating to Housing contains both permanent and temporary provisions.

The permanent provisions of the Law have been consolidated into an Act to consolidate the enactments relating to the Housing of the Working Classes in England and Wales passed in the present year (1924).^{*} The Acts of 1890, 1894, 1900, 1903 and 1909 (in so far as they apply to Housing as opposed to Town Planning) have for practical purposes been repealed, their provisions being consolidated in the new Act. The Housing Act of 1919 in so far as it applies to Housing is repealed with the exception of Sections 7, 19, 23, 25, 31 and 36, and sub-section 4 of Section 24, and Section 40 so far as it is required for the interpretation of the unrepealed provisions of the Act. Portions of the Housing (Additional Powers) Act, 1919, and of the Housing Acts of 1921 and 1923 are repealed. The portions of the Acts of 1919 to 1923 which are not repealed are the temporary provisions and refer mainly to loans and subsidies. The net result is that, except as regards financial assistance and certain other minor matters, the Law is contained in the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924. In addition to the above, however, it must be borne in mind that any Act introduced after the Housing Consolidation Act, and this applies to the new Housing (Financial Provisions) Act introduced by Mr. Wheatley, will have also to be referred to. Thus, so far as future action is concerned, the Law is, for practical purposes, contained in the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, the Housing Financial Provisions Act (Wheatley), 1924, and the Housing Act (Chamberlain), 1923.

^{*} The Consolidating Bill has passed the House of Lords and a Joint Committee of Lords and Commons. It is anticipated that in the Autumn Session it will be passed into law. Until and unless it is passed, all references to its provisions must be treated as references to the Acts which it consolidates.

In what follows these Acts are referred to as the Consolidation Act, 1924, the Wheatley Act, 1924, the Chamberlain Act, 1923.

The main provisions of the Law may be divided into three headings :—

- (a) those relating to new housing schemes ; (This is contained in Parts III., IV. and V. of the Consolidation Act, 1924, and in the Chamberlain Act, 1923, and Wheatley Act, 1924) ;
- (b) those relating to the inspection of houses, notices to repair, closing orders, etc., in regard to defective houses (Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, Part I.) ;
- (c) those relating to the clearance and reconstruction of slum areas (Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, Part I., and Chamberlain Act, 1923).

The main provisions of the Law relating to these matters are summarised below under their respective headings.

WHAT AUTHORITIES ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR HOUSING.

Under the Housing Acts, the local authorities responsible for housing are, in the towns and urban districts, the Borough Council or the Urban District Council as the case may be, and in the rural districts, the Rural District Council. In the case of London, both the London County Council and the Metropolitan Borough Council have powers.

Generally speaking County Councils, other than the London County Council, only have powers of supervision and, with the consent of the Ministry of Health, of acting in default. They can, however, provide houses for their own employees (roadmen, police, etc.).

So far as London is concerned, both the London County Council and the Metropolitan Borough Council may provide new houses. The London County Council carries out large schemes of slum clearance, the Metropolitan Borough Council solely has the duty of dealing with unfit houses. Both the London County Council and the Metropolitan Borough Council have concurrent powers for dealing with small slum areas.

The central authority responsible for dealing with housing is the Ministry of Health. (In Scotland, the Scottish Board

of Health.) Local authorities carrying out schemes can borrow money direct or can obtain loans from the Public Works Loan Board, which is the central department for making loans.

THE SHORTAGE OF HOUSES.

It is difficult to form any precise estimate of the shortage of houses in Great Britain. A different figure is arrived at if we consider solely the amount of overcrowding, irrespective of the nature of the accommodation, or if we try to arrive at a figure which will not merely meet the existing overcrowding but also replace unfit houses and slum areas. Much also depends upon the standard of accommodation accepted as "fit."

There was a substantial shortage of houses even before the war. Practically no houses were built during the war. During 1919 the local authorities were asked to form an estimate of the shortage. The figures thus prepared include the number of houses required to deal with the existing overcrowding and also to replace slum dwellings. The figure amounted in all to about 850,000 for England and Wales and about 130,000 for Scotland. There is no reason to think that these figures were exaggerated; on the contrary, they probably represent the minimum demand. In other words, at least one million houses would have been required in 1919 in order to provide every family with a home, and to enable the worst of the slum houses to be demolished. Even if that number had been provided, however, there would still have been a large number of families living in dwellings which, although they could not be characterised as slum dwellings, nevertheless represented a standard considerably below that which should be regarded as reasonably necessary for family life.

In order to meet the normal increase in the number of families and to replace the houses which each year would, in the normal way, pass from the category of fit houses to those which are worn out, about 100,000 new houses would be required. This estimate is based on the normal number of new houses built each year before the war.

It is sometimes argued that the population is not increasing as rapidly as it did before 1911. This is to some extent true, but the number of families is increasing as rapidly, though the size of each family may not be quite as large. As each family

requires a separate home, the fact that the average number of children per family is slightly less does not affect the number of houses required.

The shortage of houses in 1924 may be estimated thus:—

Shortage of houses in 1919	1,000,000
Additional number of houses required to meet the annual demand at 100,000 per annum	500,000
	<hr/> 1,500,000

From this figure must be deducted the number of houses built since the beginning of 1919.

The number of working class and small middle class houses built since the war or now in actual course of construction is approximately as follows* :—

	<i>England and Wales</i>	<i>Scotland</i>
Houses built by local authorities and public utility societies under the Addison Act, 1919	175,000	27,000
Houses built under the Housing (Additional Powers) Act, 1919 (i.e., with £260 subsidy) ..	39,000	2,000
Houses completed or under construction under the Cham- berlain Act, 1923 (this includes houses built by local authori- ties, public utility societies, etc.)	62,000	4,500
Total	276,000	33,500
Total for Great Britain, 309,500.		

In addition to those which have actually been completed or are under construction, contracts and definite undertakings have been made under the Chamberlain Act, 1923, for the erection of a further 100,000 houses, though no work has actually commenced. There are also a few working-class houses which have been built since the war without any

* Figures to end of June, 1924.

subsidy at all, though these are negligible in number. The total number of houses for the working classes and small houses for the middle classes, therefore, amounts to, say, 310,000. If we deduct this figure from the 1,500,000 mentioned above, we see that the total shortage for Great Britain, *i.e.*, including Scotland, at present amounts to at least 1,190,000. This is probably an under-estimate, especially as many of the £260 subsidy houses were bought by people not contemplated by the local authorities in forming their estimates.

The scheme prepared by the Joint Committee of the Building Trade Employers and Building Trade Operatives provides for the building of 2,500,000 houses during the next fifteen years. If we add to the existing shortage 100,000 a year for fifteen years, we find that the shortage as estimated above would be largely met at the end of the fifteen years. As we shall point out below, the shortage can only be met gradually and only provided a continuous building programme is adopted which will provide for the gradual expansion in the amount of available labour and materials.

HOW TO MEET THE SHORTAGE.

The Addison Act, 1919, made it the duty of every local authority to meet the housing needs of its district. This provision has been included in the Consolidation Act, 1924.

In view of the economic conditions, local authorities will be unable to perform this duty except with subsidies from the State, and the following are the methods under the present Law by which authorities can get such financial assistance.

The Chamberlain Act, 1923, provided that in the case of houses within the following dimensions, £6 a year for twenty years would be payable to the local authorities for every house erected by them, or arranged by them to be erected by private enterprise. It further provided that the local authorities should get houses built by private enterprise if possible, and only if the private enterprise failed were they to build themselves. The dimensions of the houses were required to be :

- (a) in the case of a two-storied house, a minimum of 620 and a maximum of 950 superficial feet within walls ;
and

- (b) in the case of self-contained flats or one-storied houses, a minimum of 550 and a maximum of 880 superficial feet.

Provision was also made that the minimum dimensions might be reduced in special cases with the approval of the Minister to 570 in the case of the two-storied houses and 500 in the case of a flat or one-storied house. Except with the consent of the Minister, every house or flat was required to have a fixed bath. The subsidy was only to be given if the local authorities could show that the houses could not be erected except with such financial assistance.

Under the Chamberlain Act, local authorities are empowered to assist financially private persons erecting houses within the prescribed limits of size either by a capital grant or an annual payment.

The Wheatley Act, 1924, continues up to 1939 the provisions of the Chamberlain Act but further provides that, subject to special conditions, the local authority can obtain from the State an increased subsidy amounting to £9 a year for forty years in respect of houses of the same dimensions as those contained in the Chamberlain Act, whether built by the local authority itself or by private enterprise. The special conditions which will have to be satisfied in order to gain the increased subsidy under the Wheatley Act are :—

- (a) that the houses shall be let for occupation of tenants who intend to reside in them and not sold, except with the special permission of the Minister.

If the house is sold without such consent, the annual subsidy ceases to be paid. In this way the Wheatley Act encourages the building of houses to let, for which there is the main demand among workers ;

- (b) the tenant shall not assign or sub-let the house or any part thereof except with the consent of the local authority ;
- (c) that the houses shall not be disposed of by the local authority except with the Minister's consent ;
- (d) that a fair wage clause is inserted in all contracts for the erection of the houses ;

- (e) that the rent charged per house shall not exceed the appropriate normal rent charged in respect of pre-war houses, except where the loss on the house will amount to more than £4 10s. od. per annum during the forty years, and then only to the extent of such excess loss (see p. 105) and no fine or premium shall be exacted.

If the above conditions are not satisfied, then the subsidy can be discontinued.

Public Utility Societies.

The subsidy can be obtained direct from the Ministry in the case of public utility societies or bodies of trustees with limited dividends, without it being necessary to go through the local authority (See Section 3 (2) of the Wheatley Act, 1924, also Section 3 of the Chamberlain Act, 1923).

Agricultural Parishes.

In the case of houses constructed in an agricultural parish, where the above conditions have been satisfied, the Wheatley Act provides that the subsidy from the State can be increased from £9 to £12 10s. od. per annum. An agricultural parish is defined (Section 2 (2)) as one where :

- (a) the net annual value of the agricultural land in the parish in which the house is situated, as shown in the county rate valuation then in force, exceeds 25 per cent. of the total net annual value of that parish as shown in the same basis (the value of all property in the occupation of the Crown being taken into account) ; and
- (b) the population of the parish according to the last published census return of the Registrar General, is less than fifty persons per hundred acres.

Summary.

It will be seen, therefore, that in the case of houses which are to be sold or to be let under conditions which do not satisfy the Wheatley conditions, whether built by local authorities or by private enterprise, the provisions of the Chamberlain Act continue ; and, provided the house is within the size specified, the subsidy of £6 a year for twenty years will be payable, it being possible for the local authority to

commute this subsidy into a capital sum of about £75 if they desire. In the case of houses built for renting which satisfy the special conditions mentioned above, the annual subsidy is increased to £9 a year for forty years or, in the case of agricultural parishes, to £12 10s. od. per annum.

Continuous Building Programme.

The Wheatley Act, 1924, provides for a continuous building programme over a period of fifteen years, but power is given to discontinue the scheme if in any third year it is found that the houses built during the preceding two years does not come up to two-thirds of the figures in the schedule to the Act. This schedule provides that in the years 1925 and 1926 the number of houses to be built shall be 190,000. In the years 1928 and 1929, 255,000, and in 1931 and 1932, 360,000, and 1934 and 1935, 450,000.

The procedure to be adopted will thus be as follows:— In the year 1927 the Minister will consider the number of houses which were built in 1925 and 1926. If the total number is less than two-thirds of the 190,000 then he may discontinue the scheme. If, however, more than two-thirds of the 190,000 have been built, then the Act provides that the scheme is to continue. This procedure will be repeated every third year. The result is that the duty is cast upon the building trade itself to secure that at least two-thirds of the programme that they themselves say is practicable shall actually be carried out. Subject to this, the Act guarantees a continuous programme. If, however, the building trade fails to carry out its side of the bargain, then the scheme comes to an end. (See Section 4).

The only other condition under which the building scheme can be stopped is if the Minister is satisfied, after indefinite enquiry, that the cost of houses has become excessive. (Section 4 (2b)).

Section 5 of the Act enables the Minister to reduce the amount of the subsidy in regard to future houses to be built after every third year if the circumstances justify it. This does not enable him to reduce the subsidy in respect of houses already built, but only those which are about to be built.

The above is only a short summary of the main provisions of the Wheatley Act, 1924, with regard to the provision of

new houses, and readers are referred to the Act itself for more detailed provisions.

(See also Consolidation Act, 1924, Part III., Chamberlain Act, 1923, and Memorandum explaining financial resolution Cmd. 2151 and circulars to Local Authorities explaining the Acts of 1923 and 1924, and the procedure to be adopted).

THE SUPPLY OF LABOUR.

This matter is dealt with fully in the report prepared by the building industry (employers and operatives) and presented to the Minister of Health (1924, Cmd. 2104). In this report the following figures are given with regard to the number of workmen available in the various trades:—

	<i>December, 1913</i>	<i>October, 1921</i>	<i>January, 1924.</i>
Carpenters ..	126,780	132,260	125,010
Bricklayers ..	68,920	62,170	57,170
Masons ..	38,870	23,880	22,270
Slaters ..	6,650	5,370	5,210
Plasterers ..	20,180	17,080	16,070
Painters ..	130,860	115,900	106,860
Plumbers ..	36,860	35,840	34,440
Total (Craftsmen)	429,120	392,500	367,030

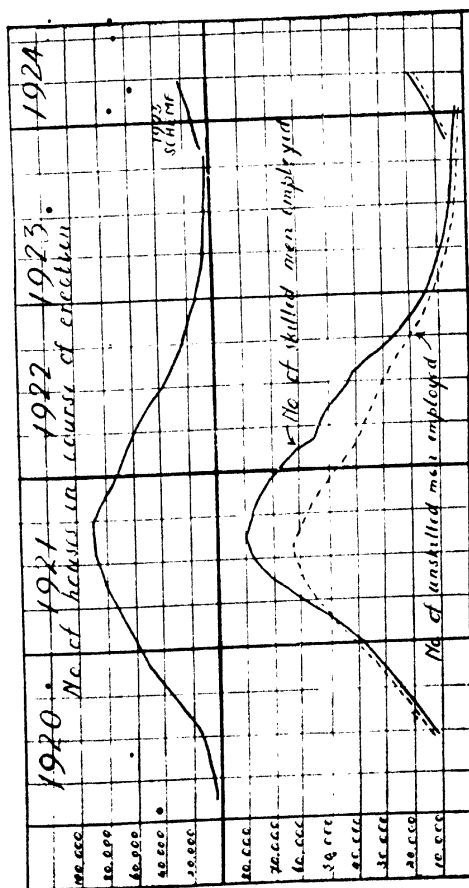
The above figures deal with craftsmen. As regards labourers no question arises as to the supply. It will be seen that the number of craftsmen is considerably lower than it was before the war. The Committee state that the main shortage exists amongst bricklayers, masons and plasterers. When, however, ship building and other industries employing large quotas of plumbers and joiners become active again there will be a pronounced shortage amongst carpenters and plumbers. It must be borne in mind that only a proportion of the building trade is engaged upon small house building. Large numbers of men are employed on other classes of building work such as factories, shops, larger houses, repairs, etc.

On pages 13 and 29 of their report, the Committee form estimates of the amount of additional labour which will be required in order to carry out the necessary building programme. They do not think that it will be practicable to increase immediately the output of houses up to the maximum eventually required and they estimate that in the year 1925 90,000 houses can be built, the figures gradually rising until

in 1934 and onwards 225,000 can be built. In order to secure this, however, the number of craftsmen has to be increased. This they suggest should be done by enlarging the number of apprentices to the trade and by raising the age limit at which lads can be apprenticed. In their proposals, apprentices should be admitted up to and including the age of 20 and the period of apprenticeship in the case of the older lads shortened. They suggest that it should be a condition in the case of all contracts for the building of houses under the scheme that a certain percentage of apprentices should be employed. Thus, under the scheme prepared by the building trade, the necessary supply of labour would be obtained partly by securing that a larger proportion of those who are already in the trade should be engaged upon the housing schemes, and partly by increasing the number of apprentices. They recognise that it is difficult to arrive at a precise estimate of the total number of additional craftsmen eventually required and the figures mentioned on pages 13 and 29 of their Report should be considered as approximate figures only. What is commonly called dilution is not recommended.

The condition which the Committee regard as being necessary to secure a sufficient supply of labour for the complete housing scheme is that there should be a continuous building programme for fifteen years. (As stated above, Mr. Wheatley's Act provides for this.) This continuous building programme is necessary, first of all so as to give sufficient security of employment to make it worth while for a large number of lads to be apprenticed, and secondly to ensure that a reasonable proportion of the existing available labour supply is employed upon housing schemes.

The disastrous consequences of not having such continuity are illustrated by experience of previous Governments in the chart on page 93. It will be seen that when the largest number of houses were under construction, i.e., the middle of 1921, as many as 80,000 skilled operatives were engaged upon housing schemes and over 60,000 unskilled. As a result of the change in policy due to the Geddes Committee, the Anti-Waste Campaign and the appointment of Sir Alfred Mond as Minister of Health, the number of houses under construction went down a little over 10,000 and the number of skilled operatives went down a similar figure. When the Chamberlain scheme came into operation the number of houses under



construction gradually increased, but all the trouble had to be gone through again in the way of getting a sufficient number of operatives on to the housing schemes. Some had meanwhile emigrated, others were engaged on other work.

In considering the supply of labour, account should also be taken of the fact that certain of the new methods of concrete construction do not involve bricklayers' work, and by utilising some of these methods, an increased number of houses could be provided.

In order to secure better organisation of the available labour supply, the building trade recommend that committees should be set up all over the country to guide the Minister in his decision as to how many houses at any given time should be allocated to each place. The object is to secure that the available supply of labour shall be utilised to the greatest advantage. For further particulars regarding the question of supply of labour, which is of course absolutely essential to the carrying out of the complete scheme, reference should be made to the Report itself.

Councillors and others interested in the solution of the housing problem should make a special point of securing the engagement of as many apprentices, particular to bricklaying and plastering, as possible.

They should also see that their Council adopts a building programme providing for continuity of work over a period of years. As we point out later, there are considerable advantages also in having a considerable number of houses built by direct labour.

There is a further matter which should be mentioned in this connection, and that is the loss of time through wet and frost. This has been one of the causes in the past of more men not going into the building trade, and also is a cause of justifiable dissatisfaction among building trade operatives. The Unions have repeatedly put forward the suggestion that payment should be made when it is not possible to work owing to wet or frost but so far the employers have resisted it.

Two or three points should be borne in mind in this connection. In the first place the loss by wet and frost is mainly borne by certain classes of labour, particularly the bricklayers and labourers. Secondly, it is calculated that 2 per cent. on

to the wages bill of an employer would enable him to pay for wet time and frost provided he organises his work in such a way that as far as possible he keeps jobs under cover available for spells of wet or frost. It may not be practicable to pay absolutely full wages for these periods, but at any rate a portion of the hourly rate could be paid. An insurance scheme by the employers would enable them to do this, without adding very much to the cost of building. Under the Guilds' scheme and in some of the direct labour schemes provision is made for payment during wet time and frost.

THE SUPPLY AND PRICE OF BUILDING MATERIALS.

When the Addison scheme was in operation and there was a large demand for materials, not merely were local authorities hindered in their operations by the shortage of materials, but, owing to the shortage and the existence of trusts and rings amongst the manufacturers, prices were forced up to exorbitant limits. The Report of the Building Trade Committee, referred to above, deals also with the question of the manufacture of materials, and a committee of manufacturers have intimated to the Minister of Health that they will undertake to supply the necessary materials and supply them at reasonable prices. At present there is a considerable shortage of certain materials, particularly bricks, and the output will have to be considerably increased. Various methods have been suggested for controlling the price of materials, either by the State regulating prices, or by importing materials from abroad in competition with home produced materials, or by the State or local authorities themselves manufacturing materials on their own account. In order to deal with the matter the Government have introduced a measure to prevent profiteering. This provides that where a *prima facie* case is made that the charge for any class of material is excessive, then the price may be fixed and if the manufacturers refuse to supply the material at this figure, then it may be commandeered and paid for at the price fixed. (Building Materials (Charges and Supply) Bill, 1924, Cmd. 166.)

Generally speaking it has been found that brick houses are the most satisfactory, but some of the methods of concrete walling are quite satisfactory, and members of local authorities should carefully consider whether any of these methods would

produce more houses at more reasonable prices than if they were built in brick.

Apart from the question of price there is the question of supply, and although the manufacturers have stated that they will be able to meet the demands, it will probably be necessary to find additional capital for increasing the plant in the brickfields. This may be done by guaranteeing loans under the Trades Facilities Act to Companies, or better still, by local authorities themselves taking over and enlarging the brickfields.

Apart from bricks and, possibly, tiles, there is not likely to be any shortage of supply.

(See Reports of Building Trade Committee, and of Committee on prices of building materials (Cmd. 2104 and 2003)).

THE COST OF HOUSES.

The following are the elements which go to make up the total in the cost of houses :—

- (a) Land.
- (b) Development of land (*i.e.*, road making, main sewers, etc.).
- (c) Building cost.
- (d) Architects' and other professional fees.

These are considered in their order.

Land and the Development of Land.

In considering the price of land it is important to take into account whether the site is one which is fully developed, that is to say, is served by roads and sewers without any additional cost in this respect being required, or whether the land is undeveloped and roads and sewers will have to be provided. If after considering these matters the local authority is of opinion that the price asked for the land is excessive, they can acquire the land compulsorily under Sects 58 and 59 of the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, and the price may be fixed by arbitration under the Acquisition of Land (Assessment of Compensation) Act, 1919. Local authorities can in the early stages of negotiation obtain the assistance of the Land Valuation Department both for the purpose of knowing the value fixed and also in connection with the negotiations.

The Cost of Building.

The actual cost of building is made up of the following items :—

1. Materials.
2. Cost of labour.
3. Foreman, use of scaffolding and other plant.
4. Profit.

Where the local authority is building by direct labour, the element of profit has not got to be considered, but on the other hand allowance should be made for interest during the course of construction and also a proportion of the cost of management by the officials appointed for the purpose by the authority.

Broadly speaking, the cost of building is made up by 40 per cent. wages for labour, 50 per cent. materials, and 10 per cent. foreman, use of plant, etc., and profit. This applies where the profit is a reasonable one, though undoubtedly in many cases, especially during 1920, the profit came to very much more. On the other hand it is probably true that during 1923 in some cases building contractors actually lost money.

It will be seen that an average increase of 10 per cent. in the cost of materials would produce an increase of 5 per cent. in the cost of the house. Again, assuming that the average wage of the men employed upon a house, including craftsmen and labourers, is 1s. 6d. an hour, an average increase of 1d. in the rate of wages would produce an increase of roughly 5 per cent. of the labour cost or 2 per cent. in the cost of the house. (The cost of labour being 40 per cent. of the total cost of the house.)

It is often suggested that the cost of the houses is unduly inflated by the small number of bricks that a bricklayer lays. Even assuming that it was possible for a bricklayer to lay twice as many bricks as he in fact does (which we do not for a moment admit), it may be pointed out that the effect of this upon the cost of the house would not be very substantial. Twenty per cent. of the cost of the house goes in the cost of the brickwork, external and internal. Of this, rather more than half is materials, the other half wages. Therefore, the cost of bricklayers' wages only represents 10 per cent. of the

cost of the house, and even if bricklayers laid twice as many bricks, the saving would be 5 per cent. of the cost of a house, and if the building cost is £400, this amounts to £20.

The most important matter in connection with the reducing of building costs is the price of materials. The Building Materials (Charges and Supply) Bill, 1924 (Cmd. 166) referred to above, which provides for enquiries where there is reason to think that the cost of materials is excessive and for the Government fixing prices and, if necessary, commandeering materials at this price, should be an effective safeguard against excessive prices.

Architects' and other Professional Charges.

With regard to the question of an architect, the local authority may either employ a full-time architect at a salary or employ their own surveyor or engineer for the scheme, or else employ an outside architect paying him architects' fees. In the case of a large authority there is a good deal to be said for having a whole-time architect with a staff, and this will probably be cheaper and also lead to better results. Some of the smaller local authorities have given the work to their own surveyor or engineer, but it should be pointed out that a surveyor or engineer has, or should have, sufficient to occupy his time apart from the housing scheme, and where this is done there is a danger of merely stereotyped plans being used and insufficient supervision, or else the surveyor will have to get special architectural assistance.

Where a local authority decides to employ an outside architect, the fees payable to him represent 5 per cent. of the building costs on the first twelve houses and 3 per cent on the next sixty, and reduced amounts for any more over sixty.

In some cases it may be found desirable to have quantities taken out, for the purpose of obtaining tenders, in which case a quantity surveyor will have to be employed. Recently however, local authorities have not found this to be necessary or desirable.

Where a contractor is employed for building houses it is generally desirable to have a clerk of works employed by the council to give detailed supervision to the work and to see that none of the work is scamped or bad materials put in

Such a clerk of works would be paid about from £6 to £10 a week according to the size of the job and the qualifications of the individual employed.

The following figures were given in the House of Commons by the Minister of Health as to the average cost per superficial foot of non-parlour houses since the war :—

			s.	d.
July, 1919	16	5½
„ 1920	20	2½
„ 1922	9	4
„ 1923	8	7½
January, 1924	9	10
May, 1924	10	8

DIRECT LABOUR AND BUILDING GUILDS.

Excessive costs may be due to excessive prices of materials, to inefficiency in building management, to inadequate output by labour, or to excessive profits obtained by the building trade contractors.

We have already dealt with the question of the price of building materials. In so far as labour is concerned, the opponents of Labour often try to suggest that the price is due to inadequate output or to excessive demands by the building trade operatives. This may be true in certain cases but it is not true generally, and at any rate this is not the main element in excessive cost. Inadequate output is more often due to inefficient management and in many cases contractors have secured undue profits. Where high cost is due to one or other of these two factors, many local authorities have, with success, tried the experiment of organising their building direct, the operatives being employed directly by the council. Some of the places where this has been tried with success are :

Bradford City Council.

On February 10th, 1923, the City Treasurer presented a return comparing costs of houses built by direct labour by the Corporation with those built by the contractor. The following is a summary of his finding :—

		Contractor.	Direct Labour.
Type A.2	..	£ 864	£ 855
„ A.3	..	978 (av.)	947
„ B.3	..	1,120 (av.)	986

This shows a saving on building by direct labour of £58 per house. It should be added that, according to the City Surveyor, the superiority of conditions in holidays, sick pay, and guaranteed week granted to the Corporation workers represented on an average £33 per house as against contractors' conditions, whilst better materials and greater cubic air space, amounting in some cases to as much as 25 per cent. over the contractors' houses, were also obtained. (The figures above, of course, represent building under the Addison scheme when costs of building were much higher generally.)

Newmarket Urban District Council.

Tenders were asked for in March, 1920. The lowest was £1,172 per house. Under pressure this was reduced to £1,040. The Council rejected the tenders and proceeded by direct labour. The final cost of each house proved to be £761 7s. 11½d.—a saving of over 30 per cent. on the builders' prices.

Tonbridge Borough Council.

The tenders actually accepted from contractors originally were, parlour type £1,070, and non-parlour type £979. Four of the former and six of the latter had actually been built when the Council decided to proceed by direct labour. Then a limit was fixed by the Ministry of £1,000 for the parlour and £900 for the non-parlour type. When the houses were completed, the cost worked out at four non-parlour houses completed by January, 1921, £784 11s. 4d., and twelve parlour houses completed by the end of 1921, £876, excluding under-building; and another block of non-parlour houses completed by February, 1922, £691. (It is true that the cost of building was reduced towards the end of 1921, but the first group of houses were built during 1920 at the time of the highest cost of building, and the figure of £874 should be compared with the £979 of the contractors.)

Newbury.

In 1920 tenders were received for houses at £875 per house. These were rejected and the Council proceeded by direct labour. The actual cost of the houses was £684 each.

Derby.

Tenders were accepted from local builders on March, 1922, and December, 1922, at average prices per house of £417 and

£356 respectively. Competitive tenders of £7,180, £7,196 and £7,252, £7,600 and £8,424 were received from local builders for the erection of four blocks of four houses in January last. The estimate of the Special Works Committee of the Corporation for the carrying out of the work by direct labour was £6,928.

Sir Alfred Mond, when First Commissioner of Works, speaking of the work of his Department in the House of Commons on December 1st, 1920, said that in many cases the local authorities were being held up in their building schemes by unreasonable costs and by the "deliberate attempt to reap exaggerated profits in the building of these houses." Sir Alfred gave some details as follows of the comparison between the tenders received by the local authorities and his Department's estimate:—

	Tender.	Department Estimate.
	£.	£
Pontypridd ..	1,098	904
Llantrissant ..	1,100	975

Sir Alfred went on to say, "I am very much encouraged in this by the experience I have had in another branch of the work of my Department which has adopted direct labour as against tenders. Repairs had to be done to a wall and the lowest tender sent in was for £2,225. The actual work carried out by direct labour cost £832. In another case the lowest tender was £1,597 and the actual cost for the work by direct labour was £980." (Hansard, 1, Dec., 1920, Col. 1311.)

Again on December 20th, 1920, Sir Alfred Mond stated that at Richmond his Department built houses. The contractor's price was £1,400, the Department's £1,000. In another case the contractor's price was £1,230, the Department's by direct labour £930; and in yet another the lowest tender was £1,638 and the Department's charge was £980 per cottage. (Hansard, Dec. 20, 1920. Col. 1429.)

For twelve cottages built at Penbrey in South Wales, the cost (1920) worked out at £930 each, including all overhead charges. The lowest tender received was £1,120 plus increased cost of labour and materials, giving a final figure of £1,230. (Hansard, 20 Dec., 1920.)

The following figures were given by Mr. Jowett, First Commissioner of Works with regard to the average cost of house building schemes carried out by direct labour employed by the Office of Works as compared with similar schemes carried out in the same area during the same period :—

AREA.	(1) Schemes carried out by The Office of Works.		(2) Schemes carried out for adjacent Councils.	
	A.3.	B.3.	A.3.	B.3.
	£	£	£	£
London	877	978	912	1,010
Provincial—				
Birmingham dis. . .	—	776	—	926
Durham district	734	880	896	1,005
Hull district ..	643	749	811	926
Kent district ..	669	695	879	1,001
Wales	690	832	727	866

NOTE.—The figures in Column 1 are exclusive of the cost of land, roads and sewers, and of a Headquarters charge of 2.75 per cent. to cover Office of Works expenditure on Architects', Quantity Surveyors' and other services.

Those in Column 2 are exclusive of the cost of land, roads and sewers, Architects', and Quantity Surveyors' fees and salaries of Clerks of Works.

Type A.3.—Non-parlour house with three bedrooms.

Type B.3.—Parlour house with 3 bedrooms.

When it is proposed to resort to direct building it is very important that the local authority should employ a properly qualified building manager who is really anxious to keep down costs and to produce good houses and make direct labour a success. In some of the cases where it has been unsuccessful it has been due to the fact that the local authority has entrusted the work to the surveyor or engineer who has already got sufficient work to occupy his time. In some cases this official has been quite qualified for the post, but where any large number of houses is to be built it is well to employ someone whose sole duty it is to manage the direct labour scheme. In addition to its other advantages, the employment of direct labour gives security to the operatives and in that way tends to increase output. It is desirable that if the method of direct labour is adopted the local authority should determine to keep on building continuously as the building organisation takes some little time to organise and many of the advantages are lost if the employment is intermittent.

Some local authorities have found it an advantage to build some of their houses by direct labour and others through contractors. In that way they are able to compare results and to secure that the one method acts as a check on the other.

Building Guilds started in 1920 and met with a certain amount of success. These Guilds are an organisation of the operatives themselves controlled by a committee of representatives of the various trade unions concerned. In their early stages Guilds had to overcome a number of special difficulties. In the first place they had to secure the necessary working capital, and, although the trade unions assisted considerably, they suffered to some extent from inadequacy of capital. They also had some difficulties in regard to getting builders' merchants to supply the necessary materials. Some of the Guilds are still in existence and are doing useful work, but the largest one in England is in the hands of a receiver—a situation largely caused by a lack of necessary working capital and possibly to a certain amount of inexperience.

In some towns, Guilds have been formed to provide the necessary direct labour for the council—the council providing the materials. This has been found successful and gets over, to a large extent, the difficulties due to shortage of working capital.

Undoubtedly the quality of work done by the Building Guilds is considerably above the average of that done by contractors, and in many cases the costs have worked out less. With more encouragement and experience, there is no doubt that Building Guilds can play an important part in the building of the houses required.

RENT, ECONOMIC AND OTHERWISE.

The term "economic rent" is used with a variety of meanings, but the one usually attached to it is the rent which will be required to provide an economic return upon the capital invested. Even with this limitation of meaning, there is some ambiguity because the rent will obviously vary according to the rate of interest demanded. Thus, if a public authority was able to borrow money at 5 per cent., then a rent which would provide for repairs and other out-goings and also interest at 5 per cent. would be economic so far as the public authority was concerned. But, a private capitalist might

not consider 5 per cent. an adequate return, in which case he would not regard a rent which allowed of a net 5 per cent. return as economic. Assuming, however, that the interest required at the present time is a net 5 per cent., the economic rent on a house costing £400 (all in), would be arrived at as follows :—

	£	s.	d.
Interest on £400 at 5 per cent.	20	0	0
Sinking fund, say	3	0	0
Repairs, voids, management, etc., say	5	6	0
Insurance and sundries, say	1	0	0
	<hr/>		
	£29	0	0

The economic rent, therefore, exclusive of rates, would be £29 per annum. It will be seen that by far the largest item is that of interest, and it will be clear that any increase or reduction in the rate of interest upon the borrowed capital makes a substantial difference to the rent—a point emphasised by Mr. Wheatley in introducing his Housing Bill. Obviously also an increase or reduction of £100 in the cost of building and land makes a substantial difference to the economic rent (amounting to about 2s. a week).

In the case of houses built since the war for the working classes, there has been general agreement that the idea of trying to provide the houses and let them at an economic rent without any subsidy would mean that the rents would be in excess of that which the workers could afford. The main difference of opinion is in regard to the amount of subsidy and the question whether the subsidy should be given to private enterprise or not.

As already explained, under the Chamberlain Act, 1923, a subsidy of £6 per annum for 20 years was provided in the case of houses to which the Act applied. No restrictions with regard to rent were imposed under the Chamberlain Act and the local authority could either take the subsidy themselves or pass it on to private enterprise, and could contribute themselves by way of loss on their own scheme or by way of additional subsidy to private enterprise. In view of the fact that the Chamberlain Act is continued until 1939 under the Wheatley Act, local authorities can still, if they wish to be quite independent of restrictions with regard to rent, build

houses of the appropriate size and let them at whatever rents they please, drawing from the State £6 subsidy per annum for 20 years. They may also pass this on with or without restrictions to private enterprise.

Where, however, a local authority wishes to take advantage of the increased subsidy under the Wheatley Act, 1924, they have to comply with the provisions as to rent, contained in that Act. These provisions are as follows: By Section 3, 1 (e) the rents charged in respect of the houses shall not in the aggregate exceed the total amount of rents which would be payable if the houses were let at the appropriate normal rents charged in respect of working class houses erected prior to the 3rd August, 1914, except where the expenses incurred in the provision of the houses exceed, so far as the same are borne by the local rate, an amount equivalent to £4 10s. od. per annum payable for a period of not less than 40 years for each house, and then only to the extent of such excess. And by sub-section 3, the appropriate "normal rent" is defined as "such rent as the local authority determines in accordance with the rules prescribed by the Minister to be the rent that is normally charged in the area of the local authority in the case of working class houses erected prior to 3rd August, 1914, provided that different rents may be so determined to be the appropriate normal rents as respects different classes of houses and as respects different parts of the area."

These regulations with regard to rent appear at first sight somewhat complicated, but in any given case will not be found to be so difficult. From a practical point of view, the general result of the regulations is that in the case of a house earning the £9 subsidy, the rent can only exceed the rent of houses in the district of a similar class which were built before the war, if, after allowing for the value of the subsidy of £9 per annum for 40 years from the State and a £4 10s. od. subsidy from the local authority, there would still be a loss to the local authority. In working these figures out it must be borne in mind that the loan charges are arranged to pay off interest and capital in 60 years whereas the subsidy lasts for 40 years. Thus, in considering whether the local authority would incur any additional loss above the £4 10s. od. per annum for 40 years, provision must be made for a sinking fund to meet the losses which will be incurred after 40 years and before the loan is fully paid off at the end of 60 years.

An example will perhaps make it more clear: Suppose that a house costs £500 (all in) and assume that the local authority borrows from the Public Works Loan Board at the current rate of interest, namely, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the total loan charges, including interest and repayment of principal spread over 60 years will amount to about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Other annual outgoings on the house will be as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Loan charges on £500 at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. (including interest and repayment of principal)	26	5	0
Repairs, management, insurance, etc. ..	6	0	0
	<u>£32</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0</u>

The economic rent, therefore, would be £32 5s. od. From this must be deducted the value of a £9 subsidy from the State and £4 10s. od. subsidy from the local authority for 40 years, £13 10s. od. in all per annum, less sinking fund to meet the fact that the subsidy is only for 40 years whereas the loan charges are for 60. This would amount to about £2 per annum. Therefore the rent which the local authority could charge without additional loss over and above the £4 10s. od. amounts to £33 5s. od. less £11 10s. od., *i.e.*, £21 15s. od., which is about 8s. a week. If this is greater than the normal rent of pre-war houses within the district the local authority will nevertheless be able to charge this rent. If, however, it is less than the normal rent, then the local authority can charge a higher rent and in that way save themselves part of the £4 10s. od. subsidy.

Supposing, on the increased subsidy, that the local authority is passing on the subsidy to private enterprise, subject to the condition that they should let the houses, then this can only be done provided that the private enterprise lets the houses at rents not exceeding what the local authority would have charged if they were carrying out the scheme themselves.

It should be added that the rents of pre-war houses are subject to the operation of the Rent Restriction Act and may not exceed 40 per cent. above the pre-war rent exclusive of rates. In all the above calculations and considerations, the figures have been taken exclusive of rates and rates can, of course, be charged in addition.

In the case of agricultural parishes, the State subsidy is £12 10s. 0d. instead of £9, and the figures must be altered accordingly.

THE TYPE OF HOUSE AND THE PROBLEM OF FLATS.

Undoubtedly, the vast majority of workers' families prefer a self-contained house to a flat. The evidence on this point is overwhelming. Local authorities should therefore provide self-contained houses. A certain number of flats may be provided for families where there are no children, but where they are provided, it is desirable that the flats should not be more than two, or at the most, three stories high.

With regard to the type of the house and the accommodation, the main demand is for houses containing three bedrooms, two sitting rooms, and a scullery. A limited number of houses may be provided with one living room and a large kitchen-scullery. A few houses may even be provided with only two bedrooms. Under the 1923 Act and the 1924 Act, houses must not exceed 950 ft. within walls, and members of local authorities should press for the great majority of the houses being as near to this maximum as possible. The houses should have adequate arrangements for the supply of hot water, and the kitchen-scullery arrangements should be so arranged as to reduce housework to a minimum.

Unless the Minister allows, the provision of a bathroom is required under the Act of 1923 as amended by the Act of 1924, Schedule 2.

In the lay-out of the building estate not more than 12 houses should be built to the acre in urban districts, and not more than 8 to the acre in agricultural parishes. This is provided in the Wheatley Act, 1924, Sec. 7. In any scheme of any size, provision should be made, not merely for private gardens, but for general playgrounds for children and recreation grounds. Moreover, under Sec. 7 of the Wheatley Act, the local authority in deciding upon its site and its lay-out should have regard to any possible town planning scheme that may be prepared for the whole district in which the scheme is situated.

For further information and advice with regard to the plans of houses, lay-out, etc., reference should be made to the Tudor Walters Report and the Manual issued by the Ministry of Health.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE.

Under post-war conditions, there is no chance for some time to come at any rate, of private enterprise providing any considerable number of working class houses, except with financial assistance from the State or from public authorities, the reason being the simple one that no one is likely to invest money in the building of houses to be let to workers, the net return being below what is required. The speculative builder builds to sell and it is houses to let which the worker wants.

The Chamberlain Act, 1923, provides financial assistance to private enterprise. The subsidy of £6 a year for 20 years is obtainable through the Local Authorities, either annually or capitalised into a lump sum of £75. The local authority may, in addition, contribute out of the rates.

A number of houses have been built by private enterprise with this assistance under the 1923 Act, but they have been mainly houses for sale and not for renting, and generally speaking have been purchased by members of the middle class, even though the houses come within the limit of area of 950 ft. Whilst the provisions of the Chamberlain Act in this respect are continued under the Wheatley Act, the additional subsidy provided under the latter Act is only obtainable by private enterprise where the houses are to be rented, and then only subject to special conditions similar to those imposed in the case of local authority houses. In the case, however, of public utility societies or bodies of trustees or companies with a limited dividend, the subsidy can be obtained in the case of houses to be rented direct from the State. It should be pointed out, however, that in that case the increased subsidy under the Wheatley Act, of £9, will only be paid annually and not in a capital form, and will be withheld if the house is sold.

For the various provisions relating to loans by local authorities to private enterprise, reference should be made to the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, and the Chamberlain Act, 1923.

**INSANITARY AND UNFIT HOUSES AND
TENEMENT DWELLINGS.**

A housing programme by a local authority will only be really adequate if it provides not merely sufficient houses to meet the existing shortage, but also to secure the replacement

of slum houses and slum areas. So long as the existing shortage lasts, the local authorities' work in connection with the closing and clearing of slums will be delayed.

The slum problem may be considered under two headings :

- (a) individual unfit houses ;
- (b) slum areas.

The Ministry of Health has laid down in the Manual that a fit house should be :

- 1. Free from serious dampness.
- 2. Satisfactorily lighted and ventilated.
- 3. Properly drained, and provided with adequate sanitary conveniences, and with a sink and suitable arrangements for disposing of slop-water ; and
- 4. In good general repair ;

and should have :

- 5. A satisfactory water supply.
- 6. Adequate washing accommodation.
- 7. Adequate facilities for preparing and cooking food ; and
- 8. A well-ventilated store for food.

And they give some illustrations of common defects in houses :

Paving to Yards.—Broken or defective—causing pools to accumulate.

Roofs.—Tiles or slates loose or broken ; flushings defective or perished ; eaves, gutters, or rain-water pipes defective or broken.

Walls.—Defective pointing, allowing damp to strike through. Defective external plaster peeling off in patches or allowing wet to accumulate at the back of the plaster. Damp-proof course cracked, perished or otherwise become ineffective ; ground banked up above the level of the damp-proof course, causing dampness in the walls. Defective internal plaster, badly cracked or breaking off in patches, or soft, dirty, or loose wall-papers.

Ceilings.—Plaster badly cracked, loose, falling off in patches, or dirty or sodden with filth.

Floors.—Broken, cracked, too thin to be safe or so rough as to be very difficult to keep clean; defective hearths or ash-holes.

Stairs.—Broken treads or risers, or broken handrail or balusters. Want of handrail or balusters.

Windows.—Perished or rotted frames or sashes, broken hinges, cords or window fasteners.

Doors.—Doors so swollen or warped that they will not shut properly, broken hinges or fasteners.

Ventilators or Flues.—Stopped or broken.

Cupboards.—Insufficient or defective.

Grates, Stoves or Ranges.—Broken, badly set or wanting setting, ovens, boilers, or hotplates cracked; fire-bars missing.

There are various grades of unfit houses—from those which short of complete rebuilding could not be made fit for human habitation to the houses which only suffer from slight defects remediable by repair. The Housing Acts draw a distinction between houses which are "so unfit for human habitation as to be dangerous to health," and houses which are "not reasonably fit for human habitation."

In the case of houses which come under the former category which are reported by the medical officer of health as such, the local authority should issue closing orders requiring the houses to be closed entirely until made fit. If it is not possible to make them fit, or the cost of doing so would be out of proportion to the results obtained, then the houses must remain closed and the local authority can issue demolition orders requiring them to be pulled down. Since the war, owing to the shortage of alternative accommodation, local authorities have, in practice, found it extremely difficult to issue closing orders. It is of great importance, however, that the local authorities should prepare a list of houses which ought to be closed; and, as soon as it is possible through the provision of sufficient accommodation, do so without inflicting even greater hardship upon the tenants than they are already suffering from. In many towns there are hundreds of houses which come within this category and which were condemned before the war, but which it has not been possible to close.

In the case of houses which are not so bad as to come within the first category, but which are not reasonably fit for human habitation, it is the duty of the local authority to issue notices upon the owners, requiring them to put the houses into repair within a certain time, specifying the repairs which are required. If the owners fail to carry out the necessary repairs, then the local authority may do the work themselves and charge the owner with the cost. If they wish, the local authority has power to make loans to owners who are unable for financial reasons to carry out the necessary repairs. The serving of notices to repair is a procedure which can be adopted immediately by local authorities.

It should be pointed out that no compensation is payable to owners whose houses are subject to a closing order or demolition order nor is any compensation paid to an owner who is forced to put his house into repair.

Obstructive Dwellings.

Where a local authority, on the report of its medical officer of health, finds that a building is so situated with regard to other houses as to make them unfit, or to prevent proper measures being taken to make them fit, it may issue an order requiring the obstructing building to be pulled down. In this case the local authority has to bear the cost of demolition if the building is not entirely unfit for human habitation, and must pay reasonable compensation to the owner. They can, however, recoup themselves from the owner of the property whose value is improved by the removal of the obstruction. In Birmingham and elsewhere considerable improvements in slum areas have been effected by the pulling down of obstructive buildings and supplying more light and air to others and by requiring other houses to be put into repair.

For further information Councillors and others are referred to Vols. I. and II. of Manual on Unfit Houses and Unhealthy Areas issued by the Ministry of Health, price 1s., and the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, Part II.

CLEARANCE AND IMPROVEMENT OF SLUM AREAS.

In towns of all sizes there are "unhealthy areas," districts composed of crowded and narrow courts and streets, where the only sound policy is to treat the area as a whole, and to

prepare a scheme for its improvement. The powers and duties of the local authorities in regard to such areas are contained in Part I. of the Housing Consolidation Act, 1924, and are summarised and explained in the Manual on Unfit Houses and Unhealthy Areas, Vol. II., pp. 40-45.

It is the duty of the Medical Officer of Health to "represent" to the local authority all unhealthy areas which in his opinion can best be dealt with by means of a clearance and improvement scheme. An area has to be treated as unhealthy if it is one within which either

- (a) Any houses, courts or alleys, are unfit for human habitation; or
- (b) The narrowness, closeness, and bad arrangement, or bad condition of the streets and houses, or groups of houses, or the want of light, air, ventilation, or proper conveniences, or any other sanitary defects, or one or more of such causes, is dangerous or injurious to the health of the inhabitants of the buildings in the area, or of the neighbouring buildings.

If the local authority is satisfied that the area is rightly represented to them as unhealthy, they then proceed to pass a resolution declaring the area unfit, and directing that a scheme for improvement should be prepared. Such a scheme usually provides for:

- (a) The purchase, compulsorily or by agreement, of the whole of an area.
- (b) The demolition of buildings in the area which are themselves insanitary or which would interfere with the development of the area on satisfactory lines.
- (c) The proper laying-out of the area, with convenient streets and any necessary open spaces.
- (d) The erection on the area, or elsewhere, of sufficient dwelling accommodation in respect of persons of the working classes displaced by the scheme.
- (e) The disposal of any surplus lands.

Notice then must be served on the owners of the property within the area. The Ministry then makes a local enquiry, and considers the following matters: The area of the scheme, the delimitation of the unhealthy area, the amount of rehousing

to be provided, the manner in which rehousing operations and demolitions are to be co-ordinated, how far rehousing is to be effected within the area of the scheme (and on what part of the area), the accommodation to be provided, what roads and open spaces are to be provided, and where, in the area of the scheme, and the appropriation or disposal of lands not required for rehousing.

It should be pointed out that where it is necessary " for the purpose of efficiency " to include some extra land which in itself is not unhealthy, the compensation or price to be paid for this land is on the ordinary basis of market value, and not on the special basis on which the property within the unhealthy area itself is included (see below).

In preparing their scheme, and in carrying it out, the local authority will have to consider carefully the following matters :

1. As to whether it is possible immediately to clear all the houses on the area, or whether, owing to the shortage of accommodation, it may be desirable only to clear a certain number of the houses, and improve the remainder, even though ultimately the whole lot may have to be pulled down in order to make the scheme complete.
2. As to whether, having regard to the situation of the land, it is desirable to utilise it when it has been cleared for building houses again ; whether a proportion of it or the whole should be reserved as an open space ; whether any factories or business premises should be allowed to be built there.

In dealing with this question the local authority must consider the general future development of the town. It cannot be considered merely as an isolated area. The whole question is dealt with fully in the Manual on Unfit Houses and Unhealthy Areas, Vol. I., pp. 16-22. In the case of slum areas within large towns, generally speaking, the land ought either to be used for rehousing or for open spaces. If it is used for factories, it only further accentuates the difficulty of transit, and the displaced persons will have to be rehoused on the outskirts of the town, and have to come long distances to their work. Moreover, even if it is not suitable for rehousing, it is generally necessary to add to the open spaces

in the centre of the town. If the land is used for rehousing, self-contained houses should be erected, if possible. In any case not more than three-storied blocks should be erected.

3. What is the price to be paid for the land and the buildings on it? By Section 46 of the Consolidation Act, 1924, the compensation or price to be paid for the land, including any buildings thereon, is to be the value of the land as a site cleared of buildings, and available for development in accordance with the requirements of the building bye-laws for the time being in force.

Thus, no compensation is paid for the buildings on an unhealthy area, and the compensation to be paid for the land must be on the assumption that it is going to be developed in accordance with modern bye-laws, and not according to the number of houses that were on the site before the clearance took place. Before the passing of the Act of 1919, inflated prices were often paid for land in a slum area on the ground that it might have been sold for factories or commercial premises. For this reason it is provided that if the Ministry of Health are of opinion that it is desirable for the land to be used for rehousing, or for portions of it to be laid out as open spaces, the compensation payable shall be reduced to its value for housing purposes. If only a portion of the land is to be used for housing and open spaces, then there is a proportionate reduction payable according to principles laid down in the schedule of the Consolidation Act, 1924. Land may be acquired in advance of requirements for the purpose of improvement schemes. Reference should also be made to the Acquisition of Land (Assessment of Compensation) Act, 1919, Secs. 1, 2, 7 and 8.

Councillors and others who are considering schemes for slum clearances and reconstruction should study carefully the Interim and Final Reports of the Unhealthy Areas Committee (published 1920-21). The Interim Report refers solely to London, and the Final Report to the country generally. It is of supreme importance that the areas should not be considered by themselves but in relation to the town as a whole. In the case of a large town it is important to consider closely the relation of the location of industry, housing to meet the needs of people displaced by the clearance, and the problem

of transit. Generally speaking, it is desirable that many fewer houses should be built on the area after it has been cleared. This will mean the migration of a certain portion of the displaced population, and unless this is accompanied by some scheme for the transfer of certain industrial concerns from the central parts of the town, the problem of transit will become increasingly difficult. It is for this reason that the Unhealthy Areas Committee recommended the establishment of self-contained garden cities out in the open country, to which a certain proportion of both population and industry can be moved so that people can live and work in healthy surroundings without having to go long distances to and from their employment.

The Chamberlain Act, 1923, provides that in the case of a slum clearance and reconstruction scheme, half the loss to a local authority on the scheme can be borne by the Exchequer.

GARDEN CITIES.

Reference has been made to the fact that the Unhealthy Areas Committee recommended the establishment of self-contained garden cities as satellites to the existing large towns, in order to relieve the congestion both of industry and population in the centre. This policy, which has for some time been part of the official policy of the Labour Party, has been proved to be quite a practical proposition by the example of Letchworth. Undoubtedly there are many industries which are at present conducted under inefficient and unhealthy conditions in the centres of our large towns, which could quite easily be moved into new self-contained garden cities. If at the same time a large number of workers' houses are built in these new places, it will enable them to live and work in healthy conditions and avoid a large amount of travelling to and fro. It has been estimated that workers in Greater London spend £30,000,000 a year in getting to and from their work. There is not merely this economic waste in money terms, but it also involves waste of time and nervous energy.

The definition of a garden city adopted by the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association is :—

A Garden City is a Town designed for healthy living and industry ; of a size that makes possible a full measure of social life, but not larger ; surrounded by

a rural belt; the whole of the land being in public ownership, or held in trust for the community.

For further consideration of what is involved in this definition and of the theory and practice of the establishment of new towns, readers are referred to "Town Theory and Practice" (Benn Bros.), 3s. 6d. The matter is also referred to under the heading of Town Planning in the present volume.

LABOUR POLICY.

The Policy of the Labour Party in regard to housing may be summarised as follows:—

1. That sufficient new houses should be built as rapidly as possible to meet the existing overcrowding and also to enable unfit houses to be closed and slum areas to be cleared.
2. That the houses should have sufficient accommodation, be well planned, be built not more than 8 or 12 to the acre, and in connection with the lay-out of housing estates, provision should be made for adequate open spaces and playgrounds.
3. That so far as possible the houses should be built and owned by the public authorities.
4. That houses should be let rather than sold and that the rents should be within the means of the workers.
5. That in connection with the building of the houses, adequate wages should be paid to the building trade workers and that there should be a continuous building programme which will give security to the building trade operatives and enable the available labour to be increased without causing unemployment amongst the existing operatives.
6. That adequate steps should be taken to prevent profiteering in building materials.
7. That with the direct assistance of the State, steps should be taken to establish new towns in accordance with the garden city principles, providing for an industrial area, and a residential area, the whole being surrounded by a belt of agricultural land.

In the case of the first six, the measures already introduced by the Labour Government have gone a long way towards providing the necessary legislation. The Wheatley Housing Act, together with the money resolution which was introduced prior to the Bill, provides the machinery by which an adequate number of working class houses can be built, on a scheme of continuous building over a period of fifteen years. The Act also provides for the increased subsidy to be paid only where the houses are to be let and only subject to there being a fair wage clause in the contract for the building of the houses, the rents not being in excess of rents of pre-war houses.

Further the Building Materials (Charges and Supply) Bill, 1924, provides machinery by which profiteering in building materials can be checked.

As regards the last item of the policy, namely the establishment of new towns, the Minister of Health has stated in reply to a deputation, that he is considering the setting up of a special expert committee to consider how this policy can be brought to practical effect. Thus, the Labour Party not merely has a policy, but has also taken practical steps to put that policy into effect.

TOWN PLANNING.

I. INTRODUCTORY.

It is often thought that town planning merely means the laying-out of an housing estate, but this is an entirely wrong idea. Town planning relates to the whole question of the planning of a town, including such matters as the location of industrial areas, the planning of main and secondary roads, the provision and location of open spaces. In fact, it deals with the whole make-up of a town. The laying-out of land for a housing scheme or the reconstruction of a slum area which has been cleared should both be considered in relation to the town as a whole, but they are not in themselves town planning schemes.

Our towns and villages have in the main grown up without any ordered plan or scheme. Little or no control or foresight has been exercised with regard to them. Individuals have been allowed to develop their sites as isolated units, without considering the development of the remainder of the town.

Generally speaking, in working-class areas the largest number of houses possible have been built to the acre.* Factories and houses have sprung up side by side without any attempt to separate residential and industrial areas. Natural beauties have been destroyed, and natural advantages neglected. There has been no attempt to make adequate provision for probable future needs in regard to main arterial roads and transit. Houses have been built in large numbers quite close to railways and docks, on sites eminently fitted for factories, while factories have been erected in areas which should have been residential. As a result, not merely have the residential areas been less attractive, but a large amount of unnecessary cartage and traffic has been created. No better illustration can be found than the areas round the London docks, where thousands of working-class dwellings are crowded together on low-lying ground close to the docks quite unsuitable for building sites, and narrow streets are congested with heavy vans and drays; the whole situation being too often one of indescribable confusion and waste of energy. Another example of a different kind is the Rhondda Valley in South Wales where slag heaps from the collieries spread right up to the houses. In every industrial town there is abundant evidence of the evil results of failure to plan.

It is true that here and there portions of a town have been admirably planned, but mainly in well-to-do neighbourhoods. Public benefactors, again, have sometimes given land for parks; but there has been no systematic effort to provide open spaces to the extent which is necessary both for health and happiness.

No doubt the changing conditions of industrial progress made a certain number of mistakes inevitable. For instance, no municipality, however wise and far-seeing, could anticipate or make full allowance for the altered situation arising from the introduction of the railway, and later on, the tramway and the motor omnibus. Nevertheless, much of the present chaos could have been avoided.

II. THE EFFECTS OF BAD PLANNING.

The lack of planning in the past has cost us much, both in money and health. Industrial progress has been delayed. Slums have been created. As towns have developed, street widenings have become necessary which could only be carried

out at great expense. A town cannot be taken to pieces and put together again like a clock. It is an intricate, complex organism, slow in growth, but of great permanence, and the evils of the past can only be remedied at immense cost after delicate negotiations, and often by a prolonged struggle, against strong opposition. Even so, the remedial process is too gradual and too fragmentary to yield satisfactory results. Slum clearances and improvement schemes are at best attempts to cope with the most glaring evils, and their cost is enormous. If new areas are satisfactorily planned, we shall avert a financial loss that can be reckoned in millions, as well as a loss in human life and health that transcends all money values. In the future, we must find and follow the very best lines of development : we must allow for the probable, or even possible, expansion of both urban areas and villages : we must utilise every natural advantage and all available human knowledge, and we must gradually create cities and towns that are noble, beautiful, and worthy of a civilised country.

The results of failure to plan and to control the use of land and prevent its exploitation may, therefore, be summarised as follows :—

1. Working-class residential areas have been developed so as to crowd too many houses to the acre and there has been a lack of sufficient open space.
2. Factories and houses have been jumbled together, with the result that the noise and fumes and smoke from the factories have had a serious effect upon the health and comfort of the people living in the houses.
3. Inadequate forethought has been displayed in the provision of transit facilities, both by road and rail, with the result that industry has been hampered and unnecessary handling of goods caused.
4. No control has been exercised over the architecture of the buildings, no effort made to preserve natural beauties and to get beautiful street effects.

The object of town planning is to secure that a town shall be developed in such a way as to be as nearly ideal as possible from the point of view of the community living in it. This involves :—

1. The separation into zones of the residential and the industrial areas.
2. The laying-out of the residential areas with a limited number of houses to the acre.
3. The laying-out of the industrial area in such a way as to give the best possible transit facilities, including as far as possible railway siding accommodation, and also to enable the workers to work in the healthiest conditions.
4. The provision of adequate open spaces, both by way of recreation grounds for adults and playgrounds for children, and the placing of these open spaces in the most suitable spots.
5. The laying-out of the main roads in the most economical manner from a point of view of engineering, and at the same time the most convenient from the point of view of traffic. This also involves the reservation of a sufficient width so that the roads can be widened when necessary.
6. The provision of a suitable civic centre where the more important public buildings can be grouped together so as to form a dignified centre for the town.
7. The careful selection of the area where shops are to be built.
8. The reservation of a belt of open country surrounding the town so as to prevent the town growing to excessive proportions and the resulting divorce between urban and rural life.

III. EARLY ATTEMPTS AT TOWN PLANNING.

In classical times, particularly in the Roman Empire, some attempt was made to plan towns. In some of the Roman colonies towns were planned from the start, but the planning was mainly in regard to roads and was more or less geometrical in character, the roads being parallel or at right angles to each other.

During the Middle Ages in some of the Continental countries some attempt was made to plan, but the plan was hampered by the necessity for surrounding the town by a wall for defensive purposes. As the population increased, the original

plan was departed from and congestion was created. Examples of this may be seen, not merely on the Continent, but in some of the old English towns such as Salisbury and Chichester where it is possible still to note the original scheme of the town and to see how, with the increasing population, little courts have been constructed off the main roads in what would otherwise have been the gardens of the houses whose frontages were on the main roads.

For all practical purposes, no attempts at town planning were made in this country until the beginning of the present century. Since the beginning of the century, however, there have been a few pioneer efforts both to plan the suburbs of existing towns and in two notable cases to plan a complete industrial town.

Bournville, just outside Birmingham (which was planned by the Cadburys'), Hampstead Garden Suburb at Golders Green, and Port Sunlight, just outside Birkenhead, are three examples of suburban development which had been planned with some of the objects mentioned in the previous section.

The most notable example of an attempt to plan, however, is Letchworth, where a company with a limited dividend has attempted the lay-out of a new industrial town with a strict limitation of the number of houses to the acre, a separation of the residential and industrial areas, the provision of open spaces and other considerations which are requisite for a properly planned town.

Recently a second attempt to plan a town from the start has been initiated at Welwyn Garden City.

IV. THE PLANNING AT LETCHWORTH.

Letchworth is the only town in this country which has been completely planned out, and in order to illustrate what is meant by town planning, we propose briefly to describe the method adopted. No doubt details are open to criticism, and in the light of present experience certain alterations might be made. Still, Letchworth affords an excellent object-lesson for the town planning of the future, which should be carried out by public authorities.

Some twenty years ago a group of people, inspired by the ideals set forth by Ebenezer Howard in his book, "Garden Cities of To-morrow," purchased a tract of open country

about 3,800 acres in extent, in the north of Hertfordshire. (Since then, an additional 700 acres have been bought, bringing the total up to 4,500.) A railway ran through the middle of the estate, on which, at that time, there were only a few cottages and farms. A company was formed, with dividends limited to five per cent., for the purpose of developing this land into a garden city. The eastern area, near the railway, was reserved for factories; other areas were laid out for residential districts, with a strict limitation of the number of houses to the acre. A central area was left vacant, so that at a later date, when the town had developed, it could be used for public buildings and offices. A shopping centre was situated close to the railway, and bordering on the parks and open spaces. Of the whole 4,500 acres, about 1,500 were allotted to the town proper, the remaining 3,000 forming a large permanent agricultural belt of small-holdings and small farms. When fully developed it is calculated that the town will have a population of about 30,000 people. Already there are some 12,000 inhabitants, and about forty factories. Clearly, therefore, this garden city has established itself on practical lines.

The question of road development has been most carefully considered. A certain number of main thoroughfares have been provided with grass margins between the carriage-way and the footpath. Thus, as the town develops, and as traffic increases, it will be possible to widen the roads without pulling down buildings, and without unnecessary trouble, labour and cost.

The method adopted at Welwyn Garden City is similar in nature, though of course it has been possible to profit by the experience gained in the initial experiment at Letchworth.

V. MUNICIPAL TOWN PLANNING.

Letchworth and Welwyn Garden City are town planning experiments on a large scale, and are particularly valuable as a demonstration of what is meant by town planning and of its possibilities. They are, of course, examples of the planning of a new town from the beginning.

But a complete town plan on these lines will not be possible where a large amount of development has already taken place. We must not forget that existing towns and cities are the creation of centuries of historic continuity.

We can, however, make sure that all new developments are carried out on the best possible lines, and that whatever there is of evil heritage is gradually eliminated and reconstructed in a satisfactory way.

Now, where municipalities buy their land for housing purposes, they can do so on a large scale, and lay it out as they please, and in connection with the large schemes which will be put into operation under the new Act, they may be expected to adopt sound town-planning principles in the development of their housing estates. As pointed out in the section on "Housing," in connection with such housing schemes, local authorities may not build more than twelve houses to the acre. Also additional land can be purchased for playgrounds, and other matters provided for which are incidental to the development of a building estate. As the number of houses they must build in the immediate future will be extremely large, a considerable amount of land can thus be well planned.

But more is needed. We must safeguard all the development of the future, whether it is carried out by municipal or private enterprise. It has been demonstrated beyond all doubt that when a town plan is well prepared and sufficiently elastic, the restrictions which it imposes will not only benefit the general community but the builders and owners themselves.

The regulation of traffic in London by the Metropolitan Police is an interference with the liberty of individual drivers, but they all acknowledge it as being in their joint interests. Similarly, a comprehensive and well-thought-out town planning scheme will not only be cordially accepted by the public as a whole, but by those who are anxious to develop land, build houses and construct factories.

In 1909 the first town planning Act in this country was passed, giving to local authorities the necessary powers for controlling the development of their towns. In order to prepare a town plan under this Act, it is not necessary that the local authority should itself buy the land or build any houses. *Without purchasing a single acre or building a single house it may prepare a scheme which will control effectively, within the area prescribed, all future development by private individuals on their land.**

*It is important to bear in mind this distinction between a housing scheme and a town planning scheme.

Parliament having given the local authorities wide town planning powers, it is incumbent upon all good citizens to see that local authorities do actually use them. But what are these powers? How is a town planning scheme prepared, and what should be its provisions? Let us answer these questions as briefly as possible.

VI. THE TOWN PLANNING ACT.

As already explained, the first town planning Act was the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909. Since then the law has been amended by the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1919, and in certain small respects by one or two more recent Acts. The law, however, has now been consolidated in a Town Planning Consolidation Bill of the present year 1924. For practical purposes, therefore, it is to this bill, which will shortly become an Act, that reference should be made for powers.

The local authority responsible for town planning is the borough or city council (other than metropolitan borough councils), or urban district council as the case may be in the towns and the rural district council in the rural districts. In London the London County Council is the Town Planning Authority. Generally speaking it will be the urban authorities which will consider preparing a town planning scheme, but in many rural districts there are areas which are developing (particularly rural districts which surround large towns) where it is of great importance that the rural district council should take early steps to consider preparing schemes.

Local authorities may prepare a scheme "as respects any land which is in course of development or appears likely to be used for building purposes with the general object of securing proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying-out and use of the land and of any neighbouring land; provided that where a piece of land already built upon or a piece of land not likely to be used for building purposes is so situated in respect of any land likely to be used for building purposes that the general object of the scheme will be better secured by its inclusion in any town planning scheme in respect of the land mentioned above,

the scheme may include such pieces of land and may provide for the demolition or alteration of any buildings thereon so far as may be necessary for carrying the scheme into effect."

Various points should be noticed with regard to this power :

1. The land must be in course of development or likely to be used for building purposes. In practice a very wide interpretation has been given to the expression "land likely to be used for building purposes." The Ruislip-Northwood scheme, for instance, covers an area of 5,750 acres, and other towns have schemes in preparation for the whole of the unbuilt-upon portions of their districts. Generally speaking, land may not be included if it is either already built upon, or, on the other hand, not likely to be built upon. Such land, however, may be included if it is so situated with respect to the other land that it is necessary to include it for the purpose of preparing a comprehensive scheme. A fairly wide interpretation has been given to this clause also. The Minister may also, in the case of a locality which has special architectural, historical or artistic interest, allow a town planning scheme to be prepared even although the land is mainly built up, where the Minister is of opinion that such a scheme is desirable in order to preserve its interesting character or protect its interesting features, and may allow that scheme to include provisions with regard to the space to be reserved around buildings, the limitation of the number of buildings to be erected, and to prescribe the height and character of the buildings.

2. Land may be included which is not within the area of the council preparing the scheme. This has been done already in the case of the Ruislip-Northwood scheme, where some of the land within the area of the Watford Rural District Council was included. It must, however, be shown that its inclusion is necessary, if the scheme for the land within the council's own boundary is to be satisfactorily completed.

3. A local authority can prepare several town planning schemes for different portions of its area. Birmingham, for example, has prepared four schemes, and is preparing others, and Sheffield has prepared, or is preparing, more than one.

4. The general objects for which a town planning scheme may be prepared are diverse in character. To secure them, the scheme may include such matters as the limitation of the

number of houses built to the acre, the height and type of buildings, the proportion of the site to be built upon, the width, construction and direction of roads, the fixing of building lines on existing roads, the reservation of land for parks, open spaces, public buildings, and allotments, the preservation of objects of natural beauty and of historical interest, the allocation of certain areas for factories and for shopping centres, the control of architectural designs for new buildings and the height and character of boundary fences, etc. All these matters come within the phrase "securing proper sanitary conditions, amenity, and convenience in connection with the laying-out and use of the land and of any neighbouring land."

All urban authorities (Borough Councils and Urban District Councils) with a population of over 20,000 have to prepare town planning schemes in respect of all land within their area for which a scheme may be made, and submit them to the Minister before 1st January, 1929. The remaining local authorities have power to make such schemes, but in their case it is not compulsory.

VII. THE PROCEDURE FOR PREPARING AND CARRYING OUT A MUNICIPAL TOWN PLANNING SCHEME.*

How is a town planning scheme prepared and carried out? At first sight the procedure may seem to be unnecessarily lengthy, but on the one hand the interests of all sections of the community and of individuals must be carefully considered and on the other, the scheme must be really satisfactory from the point of view of the general public. It is better to be somewhat tedious than to adopt a scheme, that is hurried and ill-considered, and which may have evil results which a more carefully thought-out scheme would have avoided.

Under the Town Planning Act, and recent regulations made under it, the procedure to be adopted for carrying out a town planning scheme has now been simplified and divided into three stages:—

*See Ministry of Health (*Town Planning*) Regulations, 1921 (S.R. and O. 1921, No. 373); Circular 145; *Town Planning (General Interim Development) Order 1922* (S.R. and O. 1922, No. 927); Circulars 329 and 368; Memorandum 70 (D.); also that popular pamphlet published by the Ministry of Health entitled "*Town Planning*," price 4d.

1. The resolution to prepare a scheme, to pass which the Council, on the recommendation of the town planning committee, will have to come to a decision as to the area of land to be included.
2. The preparation and adoption of the preliminary statement, and a map described as Map No. 2.
3. The preparation of the complete town planning scheme.

It is desirable that, for the purpose of considering the question of town planning, the council should appoint a special town planning committee.

Resolution to Prepare a Scheme.—The first matter which the committee will have to consider is the area, or areas, which should be included in the town planning scheme and as to whether one or more schemes will be required, and as to whether it will be desirable, for the purpose of making the scheme comprehensive, to include any land which is within the area of another authority. Having considered these matters they will then report to the council and ask the council to pass a resolution to town plan the area which they have suggested. Under the Town Planning Procedure Regulations issued by the Ministry of Health, the local authority should make this resolution contain an exact definition of the area of land to be included, and for this purpose the council is required to have a map prepared called Map No. 1, indicating this area of land.

After passing the resolution (a model form of which has been issued by the Ministry), the map must be exhibited for inspection by anyone who is interested, at the council offices, and an advertisement of this fact must be inserted in the local press. A copy of the resolution and Map No. 1 must be sent to the county council, and if the area includes land under the jurisdiction of another authority, to that authority also.

The resolution passed does not require the approval of the Minister of Health unless it is proposed to include in the scheme land within the area of another authority.

Once the resolution has been passed, anyone who puts up any buildings on that land without having got the approval of the local authority does so at his own peril. In other words, if he has not got such consent and it is found that the

building conflicts with the eventual scheme that is prepared, he gets no compensation.

The Preliminary Statement.—The next step is for the local authority within six months of the passing of the above resolution to prepare a preliminary statement, with a map called Map No. 2, showing the main proposals for the development of the area covered by the scheme. The task of preparing the preliminary statement will be in the hands of the town planning committee, who will ultimately have to get the sanction of the council itself. The town planning committee will entrust the actual work of drafting the statement and plan to the surveyor, engineer or architect of the council or an expert town planner specially appointed for the purpose. It is of great importance that the committee should work in co-operation with this official, directing and assisting him, so that even at this early stage other considerations than those which are purely technical may be given due weight. The local authority and its town planning committee should also weigh carefully any representations made by persons interested in the scheme, or by any other local authority which is interested. The preliminary statement, and Map No. 2, should contain the following particulars:—

1. The area to be included in the town planning scheme, together with an indication of the following existing feature:—

- (a) Existing main roads.
 - (b) Roads repairable by the inhabitants at large.
 - (c) Roads or footways over which the public has a right of way.
 - (d) Land already built upon within the area of the scheme or in the immediate neighbourhood thereof, distinguishing factories.
 - (e) Railways, tramways or light railways constructed or authorised to be constructed within the area of the scheme or in the immediate neighbourhood thereof.
 - (f) Land forming part of any common, open space or allotment within the meaning of Section 73 of the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, within the area of the scheme or in the immediate neighbourhood thereof.
2. (a) The principal new streets or roads which it is proposed shall be made as part of the scheme, with their position, and any proposed widenings of any existing streets or roads.
- (b) Building lines or spaces about buildings proposed to be prescribed in relation to the principal new streets or widenings.

3. Roads or ways which it is proposed to stop up or divert.
4. Restrictions proposed, and the areas to which the several restrictions are to apply, as regards :—
 - (a) Character of buildings to be erected (e.g., whether dwelling houses, public buildings, business premises, factories or workshops for light industries, or factories or workshops for heavy industries, or partly one class of building and partly another).
 - (b) Density of buildings (that is, number of dwelling houses to the acre, and proportion of site to be covered by buildings).
 - (c) Height of buildings
5. Areas proposed to be reserved for open spaces or other areas not to be built upon.

All these particulars should be indicated by reference to Map No. 2. A model form for this preliminary statement has been issued by the Ministry of Health.

Before the local authority finally adopts the preliminary statement and map, it must give notice of its intention to do so by advertisement and take steps to notify the persons interested and give them an opportunity of making alterations or suggestions with regard to the scheme. The Ministry of Health have laid down that it is desirable that the local authority and their town planning department should secure, as soon as possible, the co-operation and advice of the various classes of the community. For instance, the owners and occupiers of land, business men, architectural and similar societies and representatives of labour, so that the scheme may be considered in all its bearings.

Preparation and Approval of the Final Scheme.

When the plan and statement have been approved by the Ministry of Health the local authority is required to proceed immediately with the preparation of the draft of the final scheme. This draft, which has to be prepared within twelve months of the approval of the preliminary statement and plan, is illustrated by Map No. 3. That map must give such particulars and details as can definitely be indicated by reference letters, numbers, distinguishing colours or otherwise. In particular it must show any new streets or widenings to existing streets or roads proposed as part of the scheme and also the prescribed building lines, space about buildings, etc.

The Ministry have issued a set of model clauses for the assistance of those preparing schemes, and in addition to the map, the scheme will consist of a set of such clauses.

When the draft of the town planning scheme has been prepared it must be formally adopted by a resolution of the local authority and a notice of the resolution must be given by advertisement stating that the print of the draft scheme and Map No. 3 will be open for inspection. Notice must also be served individually upon certain prescribed persons, including the owners of land and of any local authority whose land has been planned. Copies must also be sent to the Ministry of Health. The local authority has then to take into consideration any objections raised and see to what extent they can be met.

Within six months of the passing of the resolution adopting the draft scheme, the local authority must pass a resolution finally approving the scheme with such amendments as have been found necessary as a result of objections raised or suggestions made. The final scheme is then sent to the Ministry of Health with Map No. 4 which shows the final plan. (If no alterations have been made Map No. 4 will, of course, be the same as Map No. 3.) The fact that this stage has been passed must also be notified by advertisement and a further 21 days for objections allowed.

The Minister, before giving his final sanction to the scheme, must hold a public enquiry at which people who object may state their case.

Thus it will be seen that at every stage, ample opportunity is given to all persons interested to state their case, and ample safeguards are provided against any injustice being done.

VIII. THE EFFECT OF THE PASSING OF A TOWN PLANNING SCHEME.

When the town planning scheme has been finally approved by the Ministry of Health, it becomes operative over the whole area which it includes. Any person wishing to develop his land within that area will have to comply with the plan and with its various regulations. For example, if certain land is scheduled for residential purposes with a limitation of 12 houses to the acre, then the owner can only develop it for residential purposes and may not build more than the 12 houses to the

acre allowed. Moreover, as regards the making of roads, etc., and the setting back of houses from the road, he will have to comply with any regulations dealing with these matters. In practice there was an objection to the earlier Town Planning Act which was of considerable importance. From the time that the Council had announced their intention of proceeding with the preparation of a scheme, anyone who built a house or factory or any other building on the land to be planned did so at his peril. That is to say, if it was found that the building interfered with the scheme when the latter was made, he could get no compensation if he had to pull it down. The result of this was to prevent building from taking place during the whole period of the preparation of a town planning scheme. To meet the difficulty, Section 4 of the Town Planning Consolidation Act, 1924, enables local authorities to permit the development of building estates whilst the scheme is being prepared, subject to such conditions as they may impose. The carrying out of works so permitted will not prejudice any claims to compensation on the part of persons injuriously affected by the scheme.

In granting such permits, the local authority should be careful to see that the conditions they impose will prevent the development from conflicting with the eventual scheme. (See General Interim Development Order, 1922, Ministry of Health.)

IX. CONTENTS OF A MUNICIPAL TOWN PLANNING SCHEME.*

Having described the procedure to be adopted by local authorities preparing town planning schemes, we proceed to indicate briefly what should be provided for in the scheme itself. In this account has to be taken both of the map or plan which is prepared and of the series of clauses the effect of which is to regulate the development of the area. In order that the plan and the clauses may be as satisfactory as possible, a preliminary survey is necessary. This survey will be carried out under the direction of the official responsible for preparing the scheme, but valuable assistance can be given by all sections of the community co-operating in this survey. The object of the survey is to collect all the necessary

* See *Town Planning—Model Clauses* issued by Ministry of Health

and relevant information, both geographical, sociological and economic with regard to the town and its surroundings, so as to ensure that a plan is prepared which will take into account all relevant facts and tendencies. For example the question of what kind of industries are likely to develop, how much demand there is for additional ground for football and cricket, what routes are likely to have the most traffic, what further extensions of trams and bus routes will be desirable as the town grows, are all factors in determining the plan. So again are physical features such as the elevations of the land, ponds and trees.

On the basis of the survey the council will have to decide on how much land is to be included in the scheme and on the way in which the development of the land should be controlled. They will also have to decide as to how much of the land within the area should be purchased by the local authority and how much of it merely controlled as to its use.

The scheme will thus include various clauses dealing with roads and road construction. Some of the new main streets included in the plan may have to be constructed by the Corporation. Where these roads are required solely in the public interest, the Corporation itself does the work at its own expense. Where, however, the new roads or widenings of existing roads anticipate or assist building development, the Corporation are empowered under the Act to obtain contributions from the owners of the land through which the road is made. Minor roads are usually left to be constructed by the owners, the town planning scheme merely laying down the widths of the roads and methods of construction. It is usual and desirable in schemes to provide considerable elasticity as to widths and construction according to the position of the road, the number of houses it is required to serve and the traffic likely to pass over it. The main roads to be constructed by the council are sometimes as much as 120 feet in width from fence to fence though the actual carriage-way may not be more than 30 feet. The smallest residential roads are cul-de-sacs which may have a carriage-way only 8 feet wide with a turning place at the end, though even here much wider space must be allowed between fences.

In the East Birmingham town planning scheme, for instance, the streets to be constructed by the Corporation vary in width from 100 feet to 40 feet between fences, but the actual carriage-

ways are from 35 feet to 25 feet. The roads to be made by private owners may vary from 60 feet to 20 feet and the carriage-ways from 18 feet to 8 feet. In no case, however, is less than 72 feet allowed between building lines.

It is desirable also to have a series of clauses dealing with the upkeep of the roads, the maintenance of the grass margins, and similar matters. Existing roads and footpaths may be diverted as soon as the new roads or footpaths which are to take their place are constructed.

Of equal, if not greater importance, are the provisions with regard to the utilisation of areas for particular purposes. In all schemes, regulations are made as to the use of the land, some of which is scheduled to be used for industrial and some for residential purposes. Some land may be scheduled as residential, the Local Authority reserving power to allow factories by special permit. Other land is scheduled for open spaces, or for buildings and shops. It is desirable that some of the land in a large scheme should be reserved for agricultural purposes. Again, there are a number of possible provisions with regard to the preservation of natural features of beauty and of ancient monuments or places of historic interest. It is usual also to have clauses with regard to the regulation of advertisements and hoardings. In the residential areas, a definite limitation is put upon the number of houses which may be built to the acre, which varies from one residential area to another; and in many schemes there are regulations as to the height of buildings.

All of these regulations can be drawn up in such a form as to give considerable elasticity and to enable the local authority to grant such extensions or modifications in particular cases as a change in circumstances may demand. Readers are referred to the set of Model Clauses issued by the Ministry of Health.

X. JOINT TOWN PLANNING SCHEMES AND REGIONAL PLANS.

In many places joint town planning schemes should be prepared by contiguous local authorities not only so as to prevent developments that will conflict with each other, but primarily that an area of common interest may be treated as

a unit. The importance of such joint action may be illustrated by Greater London and its surroundings where there are more than 100 local authorities with town planning powers, certain groups of whom have formed joint committees. Again, in the South Lancashire area there is already an energetic joint town planning advisory committee consisting of representatives of over 70 local authorities belonging to North Cheshire, Derbyshire and Lancashire.

Under the Town Planning Acts special provision is made for such joint schemes and in several cases, in addition to those already mentioned, outline regional plans are being prepared, indicating the general development which should take place over a very wide area, and leaving the individual local authorities to incorporate the outline and fill in details for their own district in their own town planning scheme.

Several of the reports of the joint town planning committees and regional committees have been published, for example, the report prepared by Prof. Abercrombie and Mr. T. H. Johnson on the Doncaster region adopted by the joint town planning committee of the local authorities in the area.

XI. COMPENSATION, BETTERMENT AND THE COST OF SCHEMES.*

Under the Town Planning Acts provision is made for dealing with the question of compensation to be paid to owners who are injuriously affected by the preparation of a scheme, and also for the recovery of "betterment" from those whose land is improved in value. The reader is referred to the Town Planning Act itself for the precise terms under which compensation is payable. The following points, however, should be noted.

In carrying out the scheme, a local authority is not subject to claims for compensation from owners for restricting the number of buildings to be built to the acre, nor for regulations as to their height and character. Nor can an owner claim compensation :

- (a) where the particular provision which is alleged to have injured him is one which might have been contained in a bye-law made by the local authority ; or

*See *Town Planning (Determination of Questions as to Compensation) Rules, 1923 (S.R. and O. 1923. No. 1509/L. 24).*

(b) where the provision is one which prescribes the space about buildings.

If a local authority deals sympathetically with all reasonable objections to a scheme before it is finally settled, claims for compensation and betterment will usually cancel out.

If this policy is pursued the cost of obtaining the scheme will be very small. The Ruislip-Northwood scheme, for instance, which covered nearly 6,000 acres, cost only £700 ; and more than this sum has already been received for betterment.

The cost of preparing a scheme may be spread over a period of ten years by raising a loan on the usual annuity basis.

When we consider all the benefits to be secured by a satisfactory scheme, the avoidance of slum clearances and costly improvement schemes in the future, and above all the gain of health and happiness, it will be seen that any initial expenditure will be far more than justified.

XII. PROGRESS IN THE PREPARATION OF MUNICIPAL TOWN PLANNING SCHEMES.

By 1st July, 1924, 371 schemes were in course of preparation by 232 Local Authorities.

Of the 232 Local Authorities which have started the preparation of schemes, 114 were urban authorities with over 20,000 population, and which were under an obligation to prepare schemes ; 143 Authorities which were under the same obligation had not yet started to prepare schemes.

XIII. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF GARDEN CITIES.

The Housing section of this handbook contains a reference to the establishment of garden cities.

Where a regional plan is being prepared or where a big authority is considering its future development, it will very often be desirable that direct provision should be made for the establishment of a satellite garden city to the main town. In order to get this established it may not be sufficient merely to prepare a plan, but the local authority may have to take direct action to help to establish it. The Town Planning Consolidation Act contains provisions which were inserted in

the earlier Acts, enabling the local authorities and authorised associations to obtain loans for this purpose and also giving to local authorities powers for the actual establishment of towns and for compulsory purchase of land. (Town Planning Consolidation Act, Section 16.)

Replanning Built-up Areas.

At present the Town Planning Acts only apply to areas mainly unbuilt on. There is no general power to provide for the replanning of built-up areas. There is, however, a strong case for local authorities being given this power and the Labour Party generally is in favour of such a policy. If the power was given it would not mean that local authorities in preparing their replanning schemes would require existing buildings to be pulled down. All that they would do would be to prepare a scheme and when any buildings were in fact pulled down, reconstruction would only be allowed in accordance with the scheme. By having such power local authorities would be enabled gradually to secure the replanning of their existing areas. For example, where they have at present houses and factories mixed up together, they can provide for the gradual separation of industrial and residential areas. They can also secure additional open spaces, widening of streets, the limitation of the number of houses to the acre, and other matters similar to what they can secure at present with regard to the planning of new areas. Such powers are enjoyed by the towns in various continental countries and in many of the towns in America.

TOWN PLANNING BIBLIOGRAPHY.

There are a number of technical books on town planning to which reference can be made. For all practical purposes, however, the following books and pamphlets will be found of most use:—

Short Books and Pamphlets.

"Town Planning in England and Wales," published by the Ministry of Health, 4d. This contains a brief description of the general objects and scope and contents of town planning schemes under the Town Planning Acts, and the procedure to be followed in preparing them. All councillors should be in possession of this.

"Town Theory and Practice" (Benn Bros.), 5/- . A study of the essential physical constitution of a city. This contains the theory and practice in regard to the problem of new towns, and is valuable as indicating the general principles which should underlie the theory of town planning.

"Model Clauses for Use in the Preparation of Schemes," issued by the Ministry of Health, price 1/-.

Larger Books.

"The Case for Town Planning," by H. R. Aldridge (1915), 22/6. A historical and practical manual for the use of local authorities engaged in town planning schemes. Plans and other illustrations.

"Town Planning Administration," by H. R. Aldridge, 8/6. A supplement to "The Case for Town Planning." A guide to procedure in carrying out a town planning scheme under the 1919 Act.

"Site Planning in Practice," by F. Longstreth-Thompson 16/-.

"The Doncaster Regional Planning Report," by Prof. Abercrombie and T. H. Johnson. 10/6. Illustrated by photographs, plans and folding maps.

"West Middlesex Joint Town Planning Committee Preliminary Report upon the Regional Survey," by Thomas Adams and Longstreth-Thompson. 5/-.

TOWN PLANNING ABROAD.

At Frankfurt-on-the-Maine, in Germany, the old part of the town was threatened by the excess of heavy traffic due to its growing industries. The congestion caused great delay, loss of efficiency, and general confusion in the streets. The municipality, therefore, purchased a large tract of land to the East of the town which was laid out as a new industrial area. It was provided with up-to-date harbour arrangements to deal expeditiously with the large volume of traffic on the Rhine; connections were made with all the railways serving the City; and sites for warehouses and factories were laid out in connection with these facilities. The construction and equipment of the docks and sites was commenced about 1908, and by 1912 an extensive development of industry and commerce had taken place on the new industrial area. The raw material comes in and the finished products go out without involving any transport in the heart of the city. This results in a great reduction in the cost of handling the goods and a consequent increase in the efficiency of the industries. The new industrial area was provided with a garden suburb laid out with dwellings for the workers and separated from it by a belt of open space and recreation grounds. The war checked further development; but the area is a striking example of what can be done by municipal enterprise and town planning to increase the efficiency of industry and reduce traffic congestion.

A number of American cities have concentrated their attention on the provision of open spaces, park ways, recreation

fields and playing grounds. The city of Chicago, which had a phenomenal growth, having reached a population of over three million in a period considerably less than 100 years, developed so rapidly that little attention was at first given to the preservation of any open spaces. About forty years ago the evils of this method of development became so obvious that the city set to work to remedy the defect. The town was mapped out, areas were selected and acquired at reasonable distances from one another, and where it was necessary buildings were cleared away so that playgrounds could be constructed within reasonable distances from all the parts of the town where congested populations dwelt. In addition to these, playing fields of adequate size and number, and park reservations were secured, and were improved, laid out and planted from time to time. Moreover, certain roads through and about the city were selected to be converted into boulevards varying in width from 100 to 300 feet, decorated with rows of trees, shrubs, lawns and flowers. These now provide most attractive ways about the city, and afford relief from the monotony of the long straight streets which were at first alone provided for in the city.

In the city of Boston, special attention has been given to preserving large tracts of open space on the hills and along the rivers in the neighbourhood of the town ; so that an extensive green girdle of lands available for refreshment, recreation, picnics, walks, drives and other open-air pleasures will always be available for the inhabitants of those cities.

In Swedish towns, Stockholm and Gothenburg for example, town planning has been in active use for many years, and lands have been reserved and spaces planned to provide attractive suburbs for various classes of inhabitants. Through communication roads and tramways have been planned in connection with them, and sites reserved for necessary churches, schools, and other public buildings to serve the needs of the communities occupying these garden suburbs.

In Holland the main cities have made great progress in recent years with the building of houses in properly planned suburbs. In Rotterdam, for example, a large area on the South side of the river has been laid out and arranged as a

self-contained garden suburb, very attractive gardens, playgrounds, schools, shops, etc., having been laid out or built. In Amsterdam a number of these suburbs have been planned and built, and some thousands of houses are still being erected in carefully planned garden suburbs. Many experiments in methods of construction and in original types of design have been made in connection with these schemes.

In Vienna and in many German towns at the present time, special effort is being directed to the provision of ample gardens attached to the houses in the new areas that are being laid out; allotments are also being extensively provided for those who must continue to dwell in the gardenless houses of the city. The high prices of food in recent times have brought home to the dwellers in these continental cities the great importance of every family having ground whereon to grow some of their sustenance, and in which they may store up work in times of unemployment.

Perhaps the most comprehensive scheme, which involves the adoption to a greater or less degree of all the foregoing advantages, may be found in the Regional Planning for the Ruhr area. A population of five or six million people, engaged in one of the richest industrial areas in Europe, are through this means rapidly securing the advantages of careful planning to provide suitable industrial areas for the carrying on of industry, for the smoothest organisation of transport, and for the efficient handling of goods; and residential areas properly planned with an adequate supply of land for gardens and recreation grounds, with reservations of open spaces for agriculture and for pleasure resorts in the neighbourhood of the different settlements. All this is being secured by the co-operation of the hundred or more local authorities concerned with different parts of the area, who have instituted a Regional Planning Organisation with a proper staff of engineers, architects, and other experts, who supervise the development of the district. Now that the Ruhr is likely to be liberated from the evil effects of the international contest, there is little doubt that this work will rapidly proceed, and that the greatest benefit will be conferred on the future industries and population of the area.

THE RENT RESTRICTION ACTS.

The Rent Restriction Acts deal both with the restriction of rents and also the question of eviction, and are not directly relevant to Local Government at all. It is not, therefore, proposed to deal fully with the law on this subject, especially as the law is extremely complicated and depends not merely upon a statement of the provisions of the Acts, but also upon the effect of a number of decided cases.

In dealing with the housing question, however, it is necessary to bear in mind the main principles laid down in the Acts, especially so far as they relate to the fixing of rent. This is particularly necessary in view of the provisions of the Wheatley Act, 1924, relating to the fixing of rents for new houses on which the full subsidy is to be paid.

The present law relating to rent restriction and the prevention of evictions is contained in the following Acts :—

The Increase of Rent and Mortgage Interest (Rent Restrictions) Act, 1920 ;

The Rent Restrictions (Notice of Increase) Act, 1923 ;

The Rent and Mortgage Interest Restriction Act, 1923 ;
and

The Prevention of Eviction Act, 1924.

The general provisions of the principal Act (1920) are :—

(a) That a standard rent and a standard rate of interest for mortgages are fixed for certain classes of houses ;

(b) This standard rent and rate of interest is that which was payable in respect of the house in question on the 3rd August, 1914 ;

(c) The rent now chargeable must not exceed in the case of a house where the landlord is responsible for repairs, 40 per cent. above the standard rent, and in addition, the amount actually payable in rates may be charged. Thus if before the war the total annual rent, including rates, was £30, and the amount the landlord had to pay out of this in rates was £10, then the standard rent is £20. The landlord may now charge £20, plus 40 per cent., i.e., £28, and in addition, whatever rates are now payable. (Of course, if the tenant pays the

rates, then the landlord can only charge the standard rent, plus 40 per cent.). If the tenant is responsible for the repairs, then only 15 per cent. may be added on to the standard rent ;

(d) The houses to which the Acts apply are those for which the standard rent or rateable value in 1914 did not exceed :

(a) In the Metropolitan Police District, £105.

(b) In Scotland, £90.

(c) Elsewhere, £78.

(e) In the case of the houses to which the Acts apply, the interest on the old mortgage which existed in 1914 may not be increased by more than 1 per cent. (In the case of a mortgage created after 3rd August, 1914, it may not exceed the original rate of interest plus 1 per cent.). In any case, however, it may not exceed $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

(f) Generally speaking, in the case of houses to which the Acts apply the tenant may not be evicted except on the order of the Court, but can only be evicted on an eviction order where there has been no payment of rent or in certain other definite cases,—in particular, where the house is wanted by the landlord for himself or for his children. By the recent Act even this power to obtain possession is still further restricted. If the landlord became a landlord before 5th May, 1924, he has to show that to refuse him possession would create more hardship, and if he became landlord after 5th May he has also to prove that there is alternative accommodation.

This is but a brief summary of the main provisions of the law, and readers are referred to the Acts themselves and to one of the standard text-books for the more detailed provisions.

The Labour Government during the present year (1924) introduced a bill which would still further have protected the tenants both as regards rent and eviction, but this was rejected by the combination of the Liberals and Conservatives. The Labour Bill provided for a reduction in the increase in rent allowed, and also restricted still further the rights of the landlord to obtain eviction orders.



FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

POLICE.

In the British tradition the responsibility for maintaining order rests with the unit of Local Government. As far back as the reign of Charles II. local justices of the peace were empowered to appoint a constable for a parish or special constables for emergencies. In London the Metropolitan Police Act, 1829, established the first permanent police force under the Secretary of State as police authority. The Municipal Corporations Act, 1835, requires every municipal borough to appoint a police force, a provision continued by Section 190-194 of the M.C. Act, 1882. Under the Local Government Act, 1888, the control of county police lies with a special Standing Joint Committee composed half of representatives of justices in Quarter Sessions and half of representatives of the County Council. The police authorities, therefore, in boroughs are the Watch Committees elected annually by the county council which appoints the chief constable and the force, fixes the scales of pay, but is subordinate to the town councillors, rating authority in regard to decisions which involve any charges on the rates. Secondly, in counties the Standing Joint Committee mentioned above appoints the chief constable, who appoints all other members of the force, and the committee fixes the scale of pay subject to approval and regulations issued by the Secretary of State. The county council and the justices separately have power to require the police to perform extra duties (Section 9, L.G. Act, 1888, Section 7, County and Borough Police Act, 1856).

Finance.

Scales of pay of the lower ranks are fixed by police regulations and scales for the higher ranks have to be approved by the Secretary of State. Pensions, etc., are regulated by the

Police Pensions Act, 1921. Section 24 of the L.G. Act, 1888, established an Exchequer Grant for Police expenses to the extent of one-half of the cost of pay and clothing of the police. The receipt of the grant depends upon the issue of a certificate of efficiency by the Secretary of State under Section 16 of the County and Borough Police Act. A supplementary grant was arranged in September, 1918. Rules issued by the Secretary of State in 1919 and 1922, and instructions since issued now govern the conditions to be observed in preparing claims for the supplementary grant. For the procedure see page 238, Part II. of the R.C. on L.G.

Local Expenditure on Police is met out of rates and there was originally a limit to the amount of rate which could be levied; but this limit was finally abolished by the Police Act, 1919. Central supervision of local police authorities is necessary because other localities suffer if the police force in any district is inefficient; but decentralisation and local initiative are still maintained. The number of police necessary for any district is still decided by the Local Authority and the Home Office, through its inspectors of constabulary, merely exercises and indirect influence. At present conditions of service are decided by reference to three separate bodies, the Home Office, the Local Authority, and the Police Federation under the Police Act, 1919. The Police Council under this Act consists of representatives of local Police authorities, chief officers of the police and the Police Federation, and all regulations proposed by the Secretary of State must first be submitted to this Council.

One of the difficulties in regard to efficiency is the small size of some police forces; for example, there are six forces consisting of 15 men or less. It has been suggested, therefore, that the unit of administration for police purposes should be a population of about 250,000 (see Report of the Desborough Committee, 1919, Cmd. 253, and 1920, Cmd. 574).

PUBLIC HEALTH.

The principal Act on this subject is the Public Health Act, 1875. Sanitary Authorities are named in Part II., which is the final result of much development, for example, the appointment of Boards of Health, etc. Provisions for the public organisation of sanitation are made in Part III. of the Act

which regulates drains, sewers, etc. All sewers and drains except those constructed by private persons belong to the Sanitary Authority, which is empowered to compel house-owners to drain premises into its system.

The Public Health Acts distinguish between the provisions which are to be administered by urban and rural Sanitary Authorities, and rural authorities have not the powers given to urban authorities to provide markets, baths, slaughter-houses, or to clean streets or make bye-laws controlling offensive trades. Urban powers, however, can be conferred upon rural councils by an order of the Ministry of Health.

In 1922-23 loans amounting to £4,386,022 were sanctioned in respect of sewage and sewage disposal schemes. (Ministry of Health Report, Cmd. 1944, page 35.)

Baths and Washhouses.

Under the Acts of 1846-1899, any ten local government electors may requisition a meeting to vote for the provision of baths and washhouses. Nearly 300 towns in England own public baths, and the Liverpool Corporation, which was the first public authority to establish public baths and wash-houses, now owns what is probably the most extensive and varied system in the country.

Diseases—General.

Local Authorities have power to demand disinfection of houses after infectious diseases (P.H. Act, 1875, Sections 120-130), and there are many special Acts dealing with infectious diseases. The Ministry of Health may also make an order extending the provisions of these Acts to diseases not now current, and may approve a resolution of a local authority to add other diseases to the lists.

Tuberculosis.

The Public Health (Tuberculosis) Act of 1901 made it the duty of every County Council and County Borough Council to supply adequate arrangements for the institutional treatment of tuberculosis. Under this Act schemes for dispensary and residential treatment of tuberculosis have been made by all the County and County Borough Councils. In 1922 there were 341 Tuberculosis Officers working under the schemes of the Local Authorities, and 442 approved dispensaries.

Venereal Disease.

In this case the disease is not compulsorily notifiable, and the Report of the Ministry of Health Committee of Enquiry on this subject in 1923 concludes that the present methods for securing attendance at clinics, in the present state of public opinion, is probably the best. In 1923 every County and County Borough were operating schemes for the treatment and diagnosis of Venereal Disease. In 1922 there were 185, and in 1923 182 treatment centres open for this purpose.

Hospitals.

Local Authorities may provide hospitals (P.H. Act, 1875, Sections 131-2) and temporary supplies of medicines for the poor. The Isolation Hospitals Act, 1893, authorises county councils to set up isolation hospitals, districts and committees.

The need of further hospital accommodation for infectious diseases continues urgent, but the demand for further economy during the last three years has prevented any considerable extension in the provision of isolation hospitals. A certain number of joint schemes have, however, been put through, which enables one isolation hospital to serve the needs of several Local Authorities.

Medical Officers of Health.

In 1922 there were 1,610 districts served by Medical Officers of Health, of whom 540 gave their whole time to public duties. Medical Officers of Health for Counties may not engage in private practice, but they may combine their duties with that of School Medical Officer, and of the 49 County Medical Officers of Health, 47 are also School Medical Officers.

The Medical Officers of Health for Metropolitan Boroughs, County Boroughs and County Districts are, wherever possible, doctors not engaged in private practice and possessed of qualifications for public health work. In districts of over 50,000 inhabitants a diploma of Public Health is obligatory.

Diseases of Animals.

Under the Diseases of Animals Act, 1894, Local Authorities have power to make wharves, stations, etc., for the landing, sale and slaughter of foreign and other animals, and to make

bye-laws. The Importation of Animals Act, 1922, confers powers with respect to the movement of imported cattle.

Food Inspection.

The Medical Officer of a local authority has power under the 1875 Act to inspect meat and other foodstuffs exposed for sale (P.H. Act, Sections 116-119), and there are many important Acts relating to the sale of food and drugs (Report of the Departmental Committee on Meat Inspection, 1921). The Medical Officers of the Ministry of Health assist the work of the local authorities, and the chief medical officer of the Ministry issues a report on the general state of the provisions for public health.

Sale of Food and Drugs.

In 1922, 113,860 samples of food and drugs were purchased for analysis, of which 6.2 per cent. were reported as not being genuine or up to standard, as compared with 8.2 per cent. in 1919, 7.1 per cent. in 1920, and 6.7 per cent. in 1921. Of the samples of milk analysed 7.7 per cent. were reported adulterated or not up to standard. In London the proportion of adulterated samples was 4.5 per cent., in the 40 largest provincial towns in England and Wales 8.0 per cent., and in the remainder of the country 8.2 per cent.

Milk Supply.

In addition to the powers specified with regard to food inspection, there are many Acts dealing especially with the supply of milk. According to the Ministry of Health Report on Preventive Medicine, about 35 per cent. of the cows slaughtered annually in this country are affected with tuberculosis. The local sanitary authority has powers of control over adulteration, uncleanness or infection under the Milk Act, 1915, and the Milk and Dairies Amendment Act, 1922. The 'Dairies, Cowsheds and Milk-shops Orders under the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act, and other approved regulations have operated since 1885, and the new Act of 1922 provided for regulations for the grading of milk, and under the Milk Special Designation Order following classes of milk are defined—Certified, Grade A. (Tuberculin Tested), Grade A., and Pasteurised.

Unhealthy Dwellings.

Section 17 of the Housing Act, 1909, empowered the local authorities to inspect and to serve a notice on the owner of insanitary dwellings to compel him to remedy their defects. Under the Housing Act, 1923, this notice must specify what alterations should be made to render the house habitable. A house considered unfit for human habitation must be closed by a closing order issued by the local authority under the Housing Act of 1903; and if the owner does not repair the house satisfactorily within three months, the local authority may have the dwelling demolished.

Smoke Abatement.

The Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health for 1922 shows the high mortality from respiratory diseases. At present smoke nuisances outside London come within the provisions of the Public Health Act, 1875 (Sections 91-111). Under Section 91 (a) any fireplace or furnace in trade premises which does not as far as practicable consume its own smoke, and (b) any chimney (except in a private dwelling-house) sending out black smoke in such quantity as to be a nuisance, can be dealt with summarily as a nuisance. Under Section 92 the local authority has to make inspections of its district periodically, to see that the provisions of the Act are enforced. In addition, local authorities, who have adopted Section 24 of the Public Health Acts Amendment Act, 1907, have power to make bye-laws with regard to the construction of chimney shafts for factories.

As regards London, Sections 23 and 24 of the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, relate to smoke nuisances. Under Section 23 furnaces and steam engines in trade premises and on steam boats have to be constructed so as to consume their own smoke, the penalty for the first offence not to exceed £5. The Sanitary Authority has to enforce the provisions of the section. Under Section 24 of the Act summary proceedings may be taken where any fireplace or furnace in trade premises does not consume its own smoke, and for the emission of black smoke from any chimney (except of a private dwelling-house).

Conferences of local authorities have from time to time been held on the question of smoke abatement, and in 1920 a Departmental Committee on Smoke and Noxious Vapours*

Abatement was appointed by the Minister of Health, and it issued its Final Report in 1921. (For suggested reforms see the Final Report of the Committee on Smoke and Noxious Vapours Abatement.) The Public Health (Smoke Abatement) Bill was introduced in the House of Lords in 1923 and passed through its Committee stage. This Bill extended the Provisions of the Public Health Act of 1875 with regard to smoke nuisances.

Factories and Workshops.

Local Authorities have powers under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to enter and inspect premises, and take legal proceedings, as an inspector under the Act.

Care of the Blind.

Local Authorities under Clause 2 of the Blind Persons Act, 1920, had to frame schemes for promoting the welfare of the blind, and have powers to maintain workshops, hostels, homes, etc., and make any other provisions with approval of the Minister of Health. The required funds may be raised out of the rates or by borrowing. All schemes have to be submitted to the Ministry of Health. The Trades Union Congress meeting at Cardiff, in 1921, passed a resolution calling upon all Trades Councils and their affiliated societies to use all their powers to compel their respective local authorities to exercise their powers under Clause 2 of this Act. The majority of local authorities have submitted schemes, and a number of these have been approved and are in operation. (See "The Blind Persons Act, 1920," published by the N.J.C. of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, the Executive Committee of the Labour Party, and the Parliamentary Labour Party.)

INSANITY AND MENTAL DEFICIENCY.

Powers and Duties of Local Authorities.

The Lunacy Commission was established under the Lunacy Act, 1845, to supervise the care and treatment of the insane, and it was continued by the Lunacy Act, 1890. Its name was changed to the Board of Control under the provisions of the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913.

Under the Lunacy Act, 1845, the Justices were empowered to provide asylum accommodation for the insane paupers within the area of their jurisdiction, but under the Local Government Act, 1888, this duty was transferred to County

and Borough Councils, acting through a Visiting Committee elected by them annually. The present Local Authorities are all County Councils, County Borough Councils, and the Councils of Boroughs specified in the Fourth Schedule to the Lunacy Act, 1890, acting through the Visiting Committee. The Visiting Committee is responsible to the County and County Borough Councils. In the case of certain counties, there have been established Joint Committees composed of the representatives of the County Council and of all the County Borough Councils throughout the County, and these Joint Committees are the Authority for the whole area.

County Councils and County Borough Councils, or combinations thereof, are Local Authorities under the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913, and are empowered to provide accommodation for mental defectives. (Sections 27-30.)

The functions of Local Authorities (as regards the Board of Control) are to provide for the accommodation, care and maintenance of lunatics and mental defectives.

The general powers and duties of Local Authorities with regard to the provision of accommodation for mental defectives are set out in Section 30 of the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913.

Under Section 31 of the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913, Local Education Authorities are required to notify to the Local Authority the names and addresses of defective children within their area.

Under Section 242 (1) (b) of the Lunacy Act, 1890, Local Authorities may unite in providing accommodation for pauper lunatics, and under Section 29 of the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913, similar action may be taken in providing for mental defectives.

Alterations or areas may be effected by Act of Parliament or by means of Provisional Orders under Section 54 of the Local Government Act, 1888.

Under Section 254 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, as amended by Section 16 of the Lunacy Act, 1891, the Visiting Committees may, with the approval of the Minister of Health, purchase, land and build or enlarge asylums.

Central supervision, as regards lunatics and mental defectives, is vested in the Board of Control, and under Section 187 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, the Board is required to visit every County and Borough Asylum at least once a year, and to enquire into the various matters set out in the section.

Certification of Lunatics.

In order to certify anyone as insane it is necessary to obtain the signatures of two doctors who have examined the patient without consulting together, and also the signature of a magistrate.

After a patient has been certified and detained in an asylum, he has the right to demand an interview with a magistrate, who, if he considers the person to have been wrongly certified, must inform the Board of Control to this effect.

Finance.

Under Section 24 (2) (e) of the Local Government Act, 1888, an Exchequer grant of 4s. per week is made towards the cost of maintaining each pauper lunatic in an asylum.

The cost of providing asylums falls on the County or Borough Fund, as the case may be. Maintenance charges fall on the Poor Rate, as the Guardians are responsible for maintenance of pauper lunatics (apart from the above grant) where chargeability can be established, but in cases where chargeability cannot be ascertained, the lunatics become chargeable to County or Borough Funds.

Under Section 269 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, Visiting Committees may, if they have vacant asylum accommodation, receive pauper lunatics under contract from other Local Authorities, and under Section 238 any profit made on these patients should be paid to the building and repair fund. Visiting Committees may also, with the consent of the Minister of Health, provide accommodation for private patients, under the provisions of Section 255, and under Section 271 (2), any profit made should go to the building and repair fund.

Local authorities have power under Section 274 of the Lunacy Act, 1890, with the sanction of the Minister of Health, to borrow for asylum purposes.

Number of Lunatics and Mental Defectives.

On January 1st, 1924, the number of notified insane persons under care in England and Wales was 130,334, an increase of 4,055 on that recorded on January 1st, 1923. This increase follows one of 2,565 in 1922 and of 3,370 in 1921. The average annual increase in the decade immediately preceding the War was 2,251. The relative percentage distribution of the sexes was, males 36.2, females 63.8. Prior to the War it was males 40.2, females 59.8.

Classification of Insane Patients.

All notified insane persons are classed under the three categories of "private," "pauper," and "criminal." A "pauper" patient is one for whose maintenance the charges are defrayed either wholly, or in part, out of the rates.

Problems and Reforms.

The Lunacy Laws, as they exist at present, and the administration of some of the asylums have given rise to much criticism. The abuses of the present system have been brought to light in the last few years by the fact that the treatment of ex-service men as ordinary asylum pauper patients was so scandalous that the Ministry of Pensions was compelled to make certain improvements. The Board of Control has admitted that pauper patients are receiving inadequate and improper treatment. Pauper asylums are administered by a Visiting Committee elected by and responsible to the Local Authority, under the supervision, as far as the carrying out of the Lunacy Acts is concerned, of the Board of Control. The powers of this Board are very limited, except as regards the legal issues, and are, for the most part, confined to making suggestions and recommendations to the Visiting Committees.

On December 8th, 1921, the Minister of Health, then Sir Alfred Mond, appointed a Committee to investigate Dr. Lomax's charges,* with the following terms of reference:

"To investigate and report on the charges made by Dr. Lomax in his book 'The Experiences of an Asylum Doctor,' and to make recommendations as to any medical

*"The Experiences of an Asylum Doctor," by Dr. Montagu Lomax. Published by George Allen & Unwin. 12/6 net.

or administrative improvements which may be necessary and practicable in respect of the matters referred to by Dr. Lomax without amendment of the existing Lunacy Laws."

The Committee reported in August, 1922, and its report disposes in the main of the allegations which had been made against the administration of public mental hospitals and contains a number of valuable recommendations.

On 19th and 20th January, 1922, the Board of Control held a Conference with the Medical Superintendents and Chairmen of the Visiting Committees of County and Borough Mental Hospitals and the Medical Superintendents and Chairmen and Managing Committees of the Registered Mental Hospitals, and certain other persons interested in Lunacy Administration, to consider in what directions Lunacy Administration and the treatment of persons suffering from mental diseases might be improved.

As regards early treatment without certification at Mental Hospitals and General Hospitals, the Conference resolved :

- (i.) That proper arrangements should be made for the early treatment of mental cases without certification.
- (ii.) That the approval and supervision of places where such treatment might be given should be in the hands of a Government Department ; and
- (iii.) That that Government Department should be the Board of Control.

The Conference was also unanimously in favour of extending the system of Voluntary Boarders to the County and County Borough Mental Hospitals.

Other subjects discussed were the organisation of research and pathological laboratories, the advisability of the inclusion of women members on Visiting Committees, and various matters connected with the Medical Staff, the Nursing Staff, and the Patients.

Three Departmental Committees were set up—one to consider and report on matters relating to the training and qualifications of the Nursing Staff—a second to deal with the dietary

of patients and its possible improvement—and a third to suggest any improvements which are possible in the keeping of the clinical and other records.

The National Council for Lunacy Reform.

This is a non-official organisation for the following purposes :

- (i.) to bring about a complete and urgently needed reform in Lunacy Law and Administration :
- (ii.) to advocate such reforms in the treatment of mental disorders as will give the patients all the resources of the most modern scientific treatment, so that cure, and not mere detention, will be the aim and result.

As a result of all the agitation for a reform of the Lunacy Acts, and the administration of Asylums, and following upon the Harnett case, a Royal Commission has been set up in June, 1924, with the following terms of reference :

- (1) To inquire as regards England and Wales into the existing law and administrative machinery in connection with the certification, detention, and care of persons who are or are alleged to be of unsound mind ;
- (2) To consider as regards England and Wales the extent to which provision is or should be made for the treatment without certification of persons suffering from mental disorder.

And to make recommendations.

MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE.

The Maternity and Child Welfare Act, of 1918, authorises Local Authorities to make arrangements for attending to the health of expectant and nursing mothers and of children under five. Such arrangements may include :—

Maternity and Child Welfare Centres.

The work of these institutions is largely educational and preventive. The maternity sections provide consultations for expectant and nursing mothers ; they receive medical and hygienic advice from a fully qualified doctor who attends the centre at regular intervals. The children's section provides

systematic supervision by the doctor of the health of babies and of children under five ; the mother receives expert advice as to the diet and home treatment of the child.

Health Visiting.

The functions of the Health Visitor should comprise the visiting and supervision of all children under school age. She is in attendance at the centre, and afterwards visits the children in their own homes to see that the doctor's instructions are carried out.

Treatment and Nursing for Mothers.

It is the duty of the Local Authority to secure an adequate service of midwives for the district. In the case of necessitous mothers the Local Authority may itself provide a midwife or (if necessary) a doctor for the confinement. The Local Authority may provide lying-in accommodation for necessitous women or for difficult cases of confinement.

Treatment of Infants and Children under Five.

The Local Authority may provide hospital treatment and accommodation in convalescent homes for children under school age. Observation and treatment Centres may be established in connection with the Welfare Centres, and crèches and day nurseries may be provided for children whose mothers go out to work.

Provision of Infants' Foods.

In necessitous cases milk and infant foods may be provided at less than cost price to nursing and expectant mothers and to young children.

These headings give an indication of the services which may be provided under the existing scheme of Maternity and Child Welfare. The grant of the Ministry of Health for approved expenditure on these lines amounts to 50 per cent. In 1923 there were 436 Local Authorities administering such schemes, which between them cover the whole of England. These Local Authorities were 49 County Councils, 78 County Borough Councils, 28 Metropolitan Borough Councils, and 281 Urban and Rural Districts. Generally speaking, the county scheme covers the rural and smaller urban areas within the county, while the larger urban authorities conduct separate schemes.

The closely allied services of Welfare Centres and Health Visiting form the foundation of Maternity and Child Welfare Work.

There are now (August, 1924) 2,200 infant welfare centres in the country of which, however, nearly 700 are maintained by voluntary agencies. The treatment of minor ailments is often arranged for at a special session or treatment centre, one of which may serve the needs of several consultation centres. In 1922, 300 centres provided dental treatment for expectant and nursing mothers. Where practicable it is arranged that one centre may serve the district of each Health Visitor. The standard proportion of Health Visitors to the population, as at present indicated by the Ministry of Health, is one whole-time officer to 400 births. In 1922, however, this standard had not been reached. The total number of persons acting as Health Visitors at the beginning of 1924 was 3,650. Many of these combined Maternity and Child Welfare Work with other duties, and approximately the equivalent of the whole time of 1,684 women was devoted to health visiting.

Of the total expenditure of Local Authorities on Maternity and Child Welfare work, 15 per cent. was spent in 1922 on Maternity Homes and on Maternity and Infant Hospitals. The need for Maternity beds and for Homes for mothers and babies is still considerable. At the beginning of 1923 there were 1,879 beds in hospitals and homes intended solely for maternity cases.* There were also 100 homes for mothers and babies, and 34 homes for children under five. There were 39 hospitals solely for children under five (including observation wards), and 29 convalescent homes for mothers and babies.

The supply of milk at less than cost price to expectant and nursing mothers and to young children, forms an important part of the work and expenditure of Maternity and Child Welfare Schemes. This has been more especially the case in the years of unemployment. In 1920 the supply of milk and food formed 17 per cent. of the total expenditure of Local Authorities on Maternity and Child Welfare. In 1921 it was 25 per cent. and in 1922 20 per cent.

*Excluding Poor Law accommodation and Maternity Beds in General Hospitals.

The progress which had been made in the development of Maternity and Child Welfare schemes up till 1921 received a check at that date owing to the campaign for National Economy. The Committee on National Expenditure urged that the State grant for Maternity and Child Welfare in 1922 should not exceed that of the previous year, with the result that in 1922 and 1923 no extensions of the work on a large scale were possible. Restrictions were also imposed on the amount of milk and food supplied to mothers and children, and the grant of the Ministry of Health was only available in very necessitous cases. This policy of economy was reversed by the Labour Government, and Local Authorities have now full power to proceed with the work permitted to them under the Act.

The figures of infant mortality in recent years throw interesting light on the success of the movement. At the end of the last century the average death rate of children under one year of age in England and Wales was over 150 per thousand births. In the five years 1916-20 it had been reduced to 90; in 1921 to 83; in 1922 to 77; and in 1923 to 69. Though the great reduction in child mortality cannot be attributed entirely to the Welfare schemes, this work has undoubtedly played an important part in bringing about the striking result indicated by the figures.

Unfortunately the death rate of mothers at or after child-birth has not been similarly reduced. In fact the rate has remained virtually stationary for the last 30 or 40 years. A pamphlet entitled "The Health and Welfare of Mothers and Babies," recently published by the Labour Party, dwells on this high maternal death rate and emphasises the need of further provision for the welfare of expectant and nursing mothers. The suggestions embodied in the report include the improvement of medical and nursing arrangements and increased hospital accommodation for pregnant women, and the extension to all mothers of some financial provision similar to that provided by the National Health Insurance to wage-earning mothers. The report also suggests that the Ministry of Health should permit Local Authorities to give information on Birth Control to those who desire it.

MARKETS.

Under Sections 166 and 167 of the Public Health Act, 1875, an Urban Authority may make bye-laws for the regulation of the markets, for the punishing of frauds, collecting fees and rents, enforcing cleanliness and regulating the conduct of the business in the markets. The Markets and Fairs (Weighing of Cattle) Act, 1887, confers additional powers. The term "cattle" includes ram, ewe, wether, lamb and swine; weighing machines are to be provided and maintained, the weighing is to be at the option of the seller or buyer and tolls may be levied.

Section 166 of the 1875 Act empowers an urban district council, with the consent of the owners and ratepayers of their district, or a town council, with the consent of two-thirds of its number, to provide a market place and build a market house and other conveniences for the holding of markets, to provide houses and places for weighing carts, to make convenient approaches to such markets, purchase or lease land, and public or private rights in markets and tolls, and to take stallages rents and tolls for the use by any person of the market. No market shall, however, be established, if it interferes with any rights, powers or privileges, enjoyed within the district by any person without his consent. The market place provided by the Council must be within that authority's district or borough, and bye-laws as to a market have to be sanctioned by the Ministry of Health before they may be enforced. The tolls the Council levies have to be on a scale approved by the Ministry of Health.

Section 167 incorporates the provisions of the Markets and Fairs Clauses Act, 1847, so far as it relates to markets, *i.e.*, with respect to the holding of the market or fair, the weighing goods and carts, and the stallages rents and tolls.

Section 168 of the 1875 Act gives urban authorities the power to purchase existing markets rights from any company owning them.

Under the Public Health Act of 1908, a rural district council, with the consent of the Ministry of Health, may exercise the same powers as an urban authority, but the consent of the owners and ratepayers of the district, referred to in Section 166 of the 1875 Act is not necessary.

By the Local Government Act, 1894, Sections 37 and 32, the powers of justices under the Fairs Acts of 1871 and 1873 as to the abolition of fairs or alterations of fair days, were transferred to the local authorities.

Under Section 32 of the Diseases of Animals Act, 1894, a local authority (*i.e.*, county council or borough council of over 10,000 population of the 1881 census) may provide, erect and fit up wharves, stations, lairs, sheds and other places for the landing, reception, keeping, sale, slaughter or disposal of foreign or other animals, carcases, fodder, litter, dung, or other things; and may make charges for the use of the same, subject to review by the Ministry of Agriculture. By Section 33 of this Act the local authority may buy and lease land for the purpose. The Clauses Act of 1847 is incorporated in the 1894 Act.

Municipal Markets.

Municipal markets are, generally, a source of profits to the authorities, but the chief advantages of municipal ownership are cleanliness, public convenience, and the protection of the purchaser from unsound food. Lately there has been an improvement and an extension of the existing markets in some of the larger towns. Extensive and successful markets are owned by the municipalities of Birmingham, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Bradford, Bolton, Wolverhampton, Exeter, Halifax, Huddersfield, Leeds, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Sheffield and Shrewsbury. In some towns the markets and slaughter houses are run as combined undertakings. The following are the surpluses shown for the year 1922-23 for the most successful markets:

<i>Market Undertakings only</i>				<i>Net Surplus</i>
				£
Edinburgh	5,884
Shrewsbury	2,865
<i>Markets and Slaughter Houses</i>				<i>Net Surplus</i>
				£
Birmingham	19,606
Glasgow	18,802
Leeds	15,179
Bradford	11,590
Sheffield	3,468
Wolverhampton	3,287

Figures for the year 1922-23 as to the revenue and expenditure of Municipal Markets are to be found in the Municipal Year Book for 1923.

London Markets.

The principal owner of London Markets is the Corporation of the City of London, whose authority is exercised under a Charter of Edward III., dated 1326, which granted and confirmed to the Citizens of London exclusive market rights and privileges within seven miles from the city. The Corporation owns the following markets, particulars of which may be found in the Municipal Year Book :—

Billingsgate Market, Deptford Foreign Cattle Market, Islington Metropolitan Cattle Market, Leadenhall Market, Smithfield London Central Markets, and Spitalfields Market.

The Corporation has spent over £4,000,000 on its markets, which are run for the benefit of the whole metropolis.

Markets not owned by the City Corporation are :—

Covent Garden, Borough Market, Stratford Market, Brentford Market, Shadwell Fish Market, Columbia Market and Cumberland Market.

For information as to these markets, see the Reports of the Departmental Committee on the Wholesale Food Markets of London, which was set up in November, 1919, and issued its Final Report in March, 1921.

SLAUGHTER HOUSES.

Section 169 of the Public Health Act, of 1875, allows an urban authority to build slaughter houses, to make bye-laws with respect to their management, and charge for the use of the slaughter houses it provides. In order to enable any urban authority to regulate the slaughter houses within its district, this section incorporated the provisions of the Towns Improvement Clauses Act, 1847, which made the registration of slaughter houses compulsory and gave town councils and urban district councils power to grant or refuse licences for new slaughter houses and make bye-laws for their regulation.

Under Section 170 of the Public Health Act of 1875, the owner or occupier of any slaughter house licensed or registered under the Act is obliged to display in a prominent place a notice to the effect that the slaughter house is licensed or registered.

Part III. of the Public Health Act of 1890 where it is in force also deals with slaughter houses. Under Section 31, if the occupier of any slaughter house used for the killing of animals for human food, sells or exposes for sale any unsound or diseased meat, unfit for human consumption, he can be convicted by a court of summary jurisdiction and his licence may be revoked by that court.

Public and Private Slaughter Houses.

The Continent has always been ahead of this country in the provision of public slaughter houses, France having set the example. Public slaughter houses are far superior to the private ones as regards cleanliness, public health and the humane treatment of animals. A large proportion of the private slaughter houses, particularly in the large towns, are quite unsuitable for the purpose; they have an insufficient water supply and bad ventilation. Also the private slaughter houses cannot always be properly inspected and the public guarded against the consumption of unsound meat. Under municipal ownership of slaughter houses, the sale of unsound or diseased meat is made practically impossible.

The object of public slaughter houses is to protect the public health, and not to run as profit-making concerns, though they are a source of income to some municipalities.

There are still some private slaughter houses in London; a few years ago, however, the City Corporation built slaughter houses at the Cattle Market, Islington. Great care was spent on these slaughter houses, and the cost was over £32,000.

Figures as to the revenue, etc., of municipal slaughter houses are to be found in the Municipal Year Book.

REFUSE AND SEWAGE DISPOSAL.

The powers and duties of Local Authorities with regard to the disposal of house refuse are defined by the Public Health Act, 1875.

Under Clause 42, a Local Authority may, and if required by order of the Ministry of Health, shall undertake or contract for the removal of house refuse, etc., from premises, either for the whole or any part of the district. All refuse thus collected may be sold or otherwise disposed of, and any profits made must be paid into the appropriate account.

Section 43 defines the penalty for negligence to remove refuse, if a Local Authority has undertaken to do so.

Section 44 gives the Local Authority the power to make bye-laws imposing the duty of removal of refuse on the occupier, if it has not made itself responsible for this.

Under Section 45, an Urban Authority, may provide temporary receptacles for the deposit and collection, and fit buildings and places for the deposit and destruction of such refuse, an annual charge being made for the use of this receptacle.

In the Metropolitan area, where the Public Health Act, 1875, does not apply, the situation so far as regards refuse removal and disposal is governed by provisions contained in the Public Health (London) Act, 1891. These provisions, which will be found in Sections 29-36 inclusive, are very similar to those in the Public Health Act, 1875, though it may be noted that it is much more definitely made the duty of the sanitary authority "to secure the due removal at proper periods of house refuse from premises." Any authority failing to carry out removal "without reasonable cause" when properly required to do so by the occupier of the premises becomes liable to a penalty.

As regards disposal of refuse, all house refuse collected by the authority becomes its property, and it may sell or dispose of such refuse as it may think proper. If, however, the premises used for treatment or disposal of the refuse are a nuisance or injurious or dangerous to health, proceedings may be instituted under Section 22, sub-section 2, under the provisions relating to nuisances, by the London County Council, who are declared to be a "sanitary authority" for this purpose.

In relation to the disposal of refuse, considerable alterations in the methods adopted have taken place in recent years, and many local authorities instead of arranging for complete destruction by fire, as was formerly the common practice,

nowadays arrange for the mechanical sorting of the material and for destroying by fire or otherwise only such parts as can be regarded as having little or no value.

The powers of Local Authorities with regard to the disposal of sewage are defined under Sections 27-31 of the Public Health Act, 1875.

HIGHWAYS AND ROAD VEHICLES.

Highway authorities are councils of counties, county and municipal boroughs, urban and rural districts. Their powers are derived from the Public Health Act, 1885, and the Local Government Act, 1888, and the Local Government Act, 1894. Central jurisdiction begins with the establishment of the Road Board under the Development Act, 1909. Main roads and bridges are maintained and repaired by the county council, but in certain cases the rural district council maintains a main road by arrangement with the county council. Secondary roads are maintained by borough councils or urban or rural district councils. If complaint is made to a county council that a highway authority is not maintaining or repairing any road, the county council may order the authority to act or may carry out the work and recover expenses from the authority. If a highway authority thinks a road no longer useful, it may apply to the magistrates for an order to this effect. An appeal lies to Quarter Sessions.

Land may be compulsorily acquired by a highway authority under the Act of 1875 by means of a provisional order. The Finance Act and the Roads Act, 1920, made considerable changes in regard to the maintenance funds for roads. A Road Fund was established by the Roads Act, Section 3, from which the Minister of Transport may make advances to the highway authority for the improvement or maintenance of roads. Additional powers for acquiring land were granted by the Unemployment Relief Works Act, 1920, Sections 1 and 2. For the central supervision of roads the Ministry of Transport has divided England and Wales into six divisions each under a divisional road engineer who approves requisitions for payment from the Road Fund.

Road Construction.

New roads or highways may be constructed either as (a) private roads required for the purpose of developing an

estate, or (b) public highways "repairable by the inhabitants at large."

Roads in category (a) are for the most part of purely local benefit and are constructed by the owners of the estate. The highway authority can take over such roads and maintain them when constructed to their satisfaction, if they desire to do so. The highway authority also has power to construct such roads at the expense of the estate owners and may also contribute towards the cost. (Public Health Act, 1875—Section 146, Local Government Act, 1894—Section 25 (1)).

With regard to roads in category (b), it is provided that the Minister of Transport may authorise a highway authority to construct a road and that where so authorised the highway authority shall have power to construct the road and to do all such acts as may be necessary for the purpose, and any expenses of the authority, so far as they are not defrayed out of any contribution which may be made by the Minister towards the cost of the work, shall be defrayed as expenses incurred by the authority in the exercise of their powers as highway authority, *i.e.*, out of the rates levied by the highway authority in their area. (Development and Road Improvement Funds Act, 1909—Section 10, as amended by the Roads Act, 1920).

Further, the Minister of Transport himself has power, with the consent of the Treasury, to construct any new roads which appear to be required for facilitating road traffic. (Development and Road Improvement Funds Act, 1909—Section 8 as amended by the Roads Act, 1920).

Road Maintenance.

In County Boroughs and the City of London and in each of the 28 Metropolitan Boroughs forming the County of London, the highway authority is responsible for the maintenance of all the highways within its area. The cost of maintenance and repair in each area is paid for out of rates levied exclusively in the area with the assistance of grants from the "Road Fund" (see page 164).

In the Administrative Counties (which for local government purposes exclude County Boroughs) the County Council is the highway authority, but is responsible only for "main"

roads within the county. Roads other than main roads are known as "district" roads and are maintained by the Councils of the non-county Boroughs, Urban Districts and Rural Districts into which Counties are divided for the purposes of local government.

The cost of the maintenance of main roads is paid for partly out of the county rates which are levied on the whole of the area within the jurisdiction of the county council and partly by grants from the Road Fund.

"District" roads are maintained partly out of rates levied in the non-county borough, urban district or rural district as the case may be, and partly by grants from the Road Fund, so that in such districts rates are paid to the county council in respect of the maintenance of "main" roads and to the local district council in respect of the maintenance of "district" roads. Also, it is within the power of county councils to contribute towards the upkeep of "district" roads and in many cases this power is exercised by them to a considerable extent.

The law with regard to the maintenance and repair of highways is contained in so many enactments that no useful purpose would be served by endeavouring to recite them and it is suggested that should further information as to the position be required, the following text-books might be consulted:—"The Law relating to Highways"—Glen, "Law of Highways"—Pratt and Mackenzie.

Road Fund.

This is a national fund, the revenue of which is derived from the proceeds of the excise duties on mechanically propelled vehicles, which have been in force since 1st January, 1921, and from licences for horse-drawn carriages and drivers' licences. The administration of the fund is in the hands of the Minister of Transport, who makes an annual report to Parliament of his proceedings in connection with the fund. The net revenue of the Fund is at present about £12,000,000 per annum. Grants are made from the fund to highway authorities towards the cost of the construction, maintenance and improvement of roads and bridges, and in particular of those which are of importance from the point of view of through traffic.

With a view to the suitable distribution of grants from the Road Fund to highway authorities, the roads of Great Britain have been classified. The principles underlying the classification are roughly as follows :—

Class 1. Roads of an arterial character connecting large centres of population and important roads forming connecting links between such arterial roads.

Class 2. Roads connecting centres of population of less importance than those referred to in Class 1, or linking up such areas with Class 1 roads.

Class 3. Other roads.

The total mileage of public highways in Great Britain is 177,321 miles. The mileage of roads placed in Class 1 is 23,230 and in Class 2, 14,739.

Grants are made from the Road Fund to the extent of 50 per cent. of the cost of the maintenance of roads in Class 1 and 25 per cent. in the cost of roads in Class 2. At the present time these grants amount to about £9,000,000 per annum and form by far the greater proportion of the total grants made from the Fund. In addition, advances by way of grants or loans are made from the fund towards the cost of widenings and improvements on roads in all classes, and towards the construction of new roads.

Road Vehicles, Registration and Licensing.

Licences on horse-drawn vehicles are issued under the Acts of 1888 and 1908, but for vehicles mechanically propelled registration and licensing falls under the Finance Acts and Roads Act, 1920. County councils and county borough councils levy the duties and have the powers of the commissioners of customs and excise in this matter. The Minister of Transport issues directions to secure uniformity in the administration. After 1920 all vehicles mechanically propelled are required to pay a substantial vehicle tax the proceeds of which go to the maintenance of the roads. Since the 31st August, 1921, the official date of the termination of the war, highway authorities have no power to control the use of omnibuses on road repairable by them. Further details and the legal position with regard to the regulation of road traffic are given in the Minutes of Evidence of the Royal Commission on Local Government, Part II., page 385 s.q.

AGRICULTURE.

Small Holdings.

County councils, under the Small Holdings Act, 1892, have power to provide small holdings and there is no control over them by the Central Authority. Under the Small Holdings and Allotments Act, 1908, County Councils and County Borough Councils have the power, but the Ministry of Agriculture can act in default of these and is liable to pay costs of acquisition of land and the whole or part of the loss incurred by a Council in carrying out a scheme. Small Holdings Commissioners are appointed under the Ministry. A Small Holdings account at the Bank of England has been opened for monies provided by Parliament and the account is audited by the Comptroller and Auditor General.

The Land Settlement Facilities Act, 1919, provided for small holdings for ex-service-men. By this Act the Ministry pays any loss incurred by the Council until 1st April, 1926; but the land may not be acquired before that date except with the previous consent of the Minister of Agriculture and the acts of the Councils require the approval of the Minister.

Allotments.

The Small Holdings and Allotments Act, 1908, consolidating former Acts, gave power to Borough, Urban District or Parish Councils or Parish Meetings to buy or hire land for allotments. By this Act also County Councils must ascertain what demand for allotments exists and must act in default of district or parish council or parish meeting. In default of the County Council the Minister of Agriculture may act. Borough and Urban District Councils have power to acquire land compulsorily under the confirmation of an Order by the Minister. County Councils also can make compulsory Orders on behalf of the Parish Councils and Parish Meetings. In the London area these powers are exercised by the London County Council. In matters of finance the Central Authority is the Ministry of Health.

The Allotments Act, 1922, enables the Minister of Agriculture to provide land for allotment gardens in default of the L.C.C. or the council of any county borough or metropolitan borough. By the same Act the council of every borough or urban district with a population of 10,000 or more must establish an Allotments Committee including

non-members of the Council representing occupiers of allotment-gardens; but such councils may be specially exempted by the Minister of Agriculture.

An account of the position in 1922 with regard to allotments will be found in the Report of the Departmental Committee on Allotments published in that year. Before the war there were 453,627 allotments in England and Wales and in December, 1920, there were 1,163,700; but the acreage increased very little from 101,592 in 1914 to 157,620 in 1920. The number of allotment holders on 31st December, 1920, was about 1,330,000.

In Scotland the increase was from 1,685 allotments in 1914 to 40,525 in 1920; but these figures are not complete.

The Departmental Committee made recommendations as to the increase of activity by local authorities and certain provisions in regard to rent.

LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS.

Local Authorities hold their powers in regard to Libraries chiefly under the Libraries Acts of 1892 and 1919 for England and Wales, and the Public Libraries (Scotland) Acts, 1877-1920 for Scotland. Under the Public Libraries Acts, 1892-1919, any ten electors may demand from the Overseers a ballot of electors, and if a majority are in favour, a library and museum may be provided. The 1919 Act removed the old restriction to a penny rate for England and Wales; but in Scotland there is still a limit of 3d. in the £ for the library rate. There are many special Acts such as the Libraries Offences Act, 1898. In 1915 it was estimated that about 57 per cent. of the population of the United Kingdom resided in areas provided with public libraries. (See Prof. Adams' Report to the Carnegie Trustees, 1915.)

If any boroughs, or urban or rural districts had not adopted the Libraries Acts before December, 1919, they became parts of the county area and could not act without the agreement of the County Council and the Board of Education. County Councils adopt the Act by resolution which specifies the area called a library district. The funds from the Libraries rate is frequently increased by grants from the Carnegie Trust.

Museums were transferred by the 1919 Act to the control of the library authority for the district. Both museums and libraries are now partly under the control of the Education.

authorities, and the Central Department concerned is the Board of Education.

Reports.

Report on Library Provision and Policy. Prof. Adams. Carnegie U.K. Trust, 1915.

Report on Public Library System, 1921-22. Carnegie U.K. Trust. Constable, 1924.

Third Interim Report of the Adult Education Committee : Libraries and Museums. Cd. 9237, 1919, price 3d. .

The Library Association Year Book.

The Librarian's Guide, 1914 ed. Simpkin Marshall & Co. 10s. 6d.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Under the central supervision of the Standards Department of the Board of Trade Borough and County Councils administer the Weights and Measures Act and provide for verification of weights, measures and instruments and inspection upon the traders' premises. The Councils appoint and dismiss inspectors, who must have obtained a certificate of qualification from the Board of Trade. Local Authorities also may make bye-laws controlling the sale of coal. (W. and M. Act, 1889, Section 28). The Board of Trade verifies the standards provided by Local Authorities. The inspectors, however, receive a small rate of pay, have not, in some cases, high qualifications and although they are supposed to report to the Local Authority which then reports to the Board there is a tendency to omit distasteful facts. In small boroughs where the members of the Council are tradesmen whose weights and measures are subject to inspection, the inspector is in a difficult position and therefore centralisation of the service has been suggested.

EMERGENCY POWERS ACT, 1920.

Directions issued under the Act to Local Authorities make it their duty to control the distribution of coal by means of permits, prohibit the delivery of coal for household where the quantity in stock exceeds 5 cwt., require the Local Authorities to supervise the use of coal by industries, and empower the Local Authorities to prosecute persons infringing these directions. Similar directions would be issued by the Board of Trade in regard to food supply.

POOR LAW ADMINISTRATION.

History since 1918.

During the war the number of paupers gradually decreased, owing to the absorption either into the army or into industry, of so many persons who would normally have received Poor Law Relief. Owing, however, to the trade depression arising out of the war, the numbers have again been on the increase. As the amount of unemployment benefit payable is not sufficient to maintain an unemployed person and his dependants, and also because everyone is not included in the scheme, the unemployed have had to go to the Poor Law Guardians for assistance or maintenance. Hence, since about the end of 1920, the number of people receiving Outdoor Relief has increased considerably. The following are figures for the year 1914, and the years following the war, of persons in receipt of Poor Law Relief :—

Number of Persons in Receipt of Poor Law Relief (England and Wales, including London).			
Year	Institutional Relief.	Domiciliary Relief	Total
1914	263,515	380,128	643,643
1919	183,554	281,824	465,378
1920	192,044	302,278	494,322
1921	203,905	449,612	653,517
1922	217,581	1,248,018	1,465,599
1923	219,573	1,126,065	1,345,638
1924	221,386	1,004,382	1,225,768

The following table shows the various classes of persons receiving Domiciliary Relief for the years 1923 and 1924: They are monthly averages :—

Classes of Persons in Receipt of Domiciliary Relief.	Numbers per 10,000 of the estimated population	
	1923	1924
1. Persons insured under the Unemployment Insurance Acts (whether in receipt of unemployment benefit or not), and the wives and dependent children of those persons	167	132
2. Persons ordinarily engaged in some regular occupation, but not so insured, and the wives and dependent children of these persons	17	13
Totals of 1 and 2 ..	184	145
3. All other persons in receipt of Domiciliary Relief	115	121
<i>Total number of persons in receipt of Domiciliary Relief</i>	299	266

Scales of Relief.

There is no uniform scale of relief, though the Ministry of Health has laid down certain conditions which must be observed before sanction is given for loans to be raised. Among the conditions laid down are the following:—

(a) Relief must be paid on a lower scale than the average earnings of the recipient ;

(b) There must be no relief without full investigation ;

(c) The greater proportion of the relief should be paid in kind ;

(d) Relief must be, and wherever practicable should be, given by way of loan to be subsequently repaid.

In some areas the " scales " paid are in practice regarded as maxima, in others as minima, and elsewhere as mere approximations, while the various methods of weighting (e.g., where war pensions, unemployment benefit, rent, coal,

FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES

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etc., are concerned) make comparisons difficult. The following are, however, scales paid in selected towns:—

Union.	Man & Wife	Children.					Single Men and Women.	Maximum.
		1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th		
Bury ..	21/-	4/-	4/-	3/-	3/-	2/6	15/-	No maximum
Cardiff ..	24/-	5/-	5/-	5/-	5/-	—	7/6 to 12/6	44/-
Merthyr Tydfil ..	20/-	5/-	5/-	3/6	2/6	1/6	10/-	No maximum
Neath ..	20/-	6/-	4/-	4/-	4/-	2/-	10/-	No maximum
Norwich ..	18/-	6/6	6/-	5/-	3/-	—	men 10/- women 8/-	40/-
Pontypridd ..	22/6	3/6	6/-	5/-	4/-	2/-	12/6	43/-
Portsmouth ..	17/6	3/6	2/6	2/-	2/-	2/-	10/-	33/6
Rochdale ..	17/-	5/-	5/-	3/6	3/6	3/6	10/-	41/-
Smallburgh ..	12/6	2/6	2/6	2/6	2/6	2/6	10/-	No maximum
Poplar (from .. 15th Oct., 1923)	20/-	6/6	3/6	3/6	3/-	2/6*	10/- if living with parents, 12/6 if living alone	

* 6th child. 2/-.

(See H.C. *Official Debates*, 25th July, 1923, Cols. 142-144, for the six towns with populations over 25,000 paying the highest and the six the lowest scales of relief in July, 1923.)

Scale of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (Outdoor Relief) Regulations, 1922 ("Mond" Scale).

	Not exceeding	
	s.	d.
Man and wife or two adults living together	25	0 a week.
For children under 16:—		
1st child	6	0 ..
2nd or 3rd child	5	0 ..
4th or any subsequent child	4	0 ..
For adult living with parents or relatives	10	0 ..
For adult not so living	15	0 ..

Fuel up to 1 cwt. a week in winter (November 1st to March 31st), or $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. in summer (April 1st to October 31st), or its equivalent in money (not exceeding 3s. in winter and 1s. 6d. in summer), may be granted in addition to the above amounts.

The "Mond" Scale only applied to London. It was not a compulsory scale of relief, but merely a scale controlling the maximum charges which might be made on the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund.

Expenditure on Relief.

The total expenditure on Poor Relief for England and Wales for the year before and the years following the war was :—

Year.	Total Expenditure, England and Wales.		
			£
1913-14	15,055,863
1918-19	18,423,883
1919-20	23,501,241
1920-21	31,924,954
1921-22	42,273,000
1922-23	42,020,039
1923-24	38,000,000

The amount spent on Outdoor Relief by Poor Law Authorities in England and Wales during the year ended 31st March, 1914, was £2,421,689, and for the year ended 31st March, 1922, the corresponding amount is estimated to have been £13,500,000.

The amount distributed per head of the population on Poor Relief in 1923-24 was approximately 21/6. (See H.C. *Official Debates*, 8th May, 1924, Col. 641.)

The average weekly cost for all classes receiving Indoor Relief in England and Wales was 13/2½ in the year ended 31st March, 1914, and 31/0½ in that ended 31st March, 1922.

Loans.

The amounts raised by rates towards the expenditure of Poor Law Authorities in England and Wales in the year before the war, and the years following are :—

Year.	Amount.		
			£
1913-14	12,078,000
1920-21	27,169,556
1921-22	36,250,000 (approximately).
1922-23	38,100,000 (estimated).

In order to meet the increased expenditure Boards of Guardians have had to borrow considerable sums under the Local Authorities Financial Provisions Act, 1921. The maximum number of Unions at any one time during the year 1922-23 who were authorised to borrow money was 104. The highest sum authorised to be borrowed at any time during that year was £8,032,076, as compared with £5,819,258 in 1921-22. By the end of 1922-23 the number of Unions had

fallen to 54, and the total sum to £5,714,000. The total amount actually borrowed at any time during the year was considerably below the total sum authorised.

The outstanding loan debt of the Poor Law Authorities in England and Wales in respect of Poor Law Services amounted at the end of the financial year 1913-14 to £11,640,830. The corresponding amount at the end of the financial year 1922-23 (apart from £5,208,000 estimated to be remaining to be repaid in respect of temporary loans and overdrafts sanctioned under the Local Authorities (Financial Provisions) Act, 1921) was £6,036,839.

(For further details see "Unemployment Relief," published by the Trades Union Congress and the Labour Party, 1923. Price 3d.)

TRADING ENTERPRISES.

GAS SUPPLY.

The Local Authorities with power to manufacture and supply gas are the Common Council of the City of London County, County Borough, Borough and Urban District Councils, and Rural District Councils, where they have been given urban powers for this purpose by the Ministry of Health. Two or more such local authorities may also under Act of Parliament establish a Joint Gas Board which becomes a separate local authority for carrying on gas undertakings.

Powers.

Under Section 161 of the Public Health Act, 1875, local authorities may contract with any person for the supply of gas for purposes of public lighting in their districts and provide such lamps, lamp-posts and other material as they think necessary for the same. Where no company or person has statutory powers to supply gas for public and private purposes, the local authority may under the same section itself undertake the supply. In such cases the usual procedure is for the local authority to apply to the Board of Trade for a Special Order authorising the undertaking. In such cases the local authority may under the Gasworks Clauses Act, 1871, open the roads for the purpose of laying gas-mains and services. If a company with statutory powers already exists, the local authority is not permitted to enter into competition with it, though it may, like a private person, manufacture gas for use on its own premises and buildings and for purposes of public lighting. Under Section 162 of the above-mentioned Act the local authority may purchase the company's undertaking on such terms as may be agreed upon. Parish Councils may adopt the lighting provisions of the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833.

Gas Meter Testing.

The position of Local Authorities in this matter appears to be ambiguous. A County Council can set up a gas meter testing station, but this action has not generally been taken. A borough council, where the Sale of Gas Act, 1859, has been adopted, may set up a gas meter testing station and appoint inspectors. But if the Council itself undertakes the provision of gas the power to test and inspect passes to the borough justices. The inspectors stamp and certify a meter, but there is no other inspection of meters.

Duties. . .

If no supply of gas exists in any district, the local authority is not compelled to provide one. But where there is a supply the undertaker, whether it be the local authority of a statutory company, is bound to furnish gas to the occupier of any premises within its district, under conditions laid down in Section 11 of the Gasworks Clauses Act, 1871. These conditions refer to the distance of the premises from the nearest gas-main, to conditions as to payment or part-payment by the occupier of the cost of piping, to notice, and to contracting to receive and pay for the supply for a minimum period of years on the part of the occupier.

Number of Undertakings.

At the present time there are 246 local authorities owning gas undertakings, viz :—38 County Borough Councils, 73 Borough Councils, 127 Urban District Councils, 6 Joint Gas Boards, 2 Rural District Councils.

Area of Gas Undertakings.

A local authority may obtain powers to supply gas in a part or over the whole of its district, or in adjacent districts as well. In the case of large towns it is common for the corporation to supply gas to urban areas lying outside the boundary of the municipality. The limits within which the authority may supply gas are defined and, as in the case of statutory gas companies, no other body or person is authorised to supply gas within those limits. Alterations of the limits of supply and powers of a local authority owning a gas undertaking may be effected by special Act of Parliament or by Special Orders under the Gas Regulation Act, 1920, as above. The extension or alteration of the boundaries of a local area does not *ipso facto* affect the gas boundaries at all.

Joint Gas Boards.

As stated above, Joint Boards may be established for carrying on gas undertakings within areas covering the districts of several local authorities. The authorities within the limits of supply of these Boards elect persons to serve on the Boards, which then become autonomous for the purposes for which they are established. Six such Boards have been set up and in some cases, such as that of the Accrington District Gas and Water Board, they supply water as well. These Boards are not rating authorities, and in case of a deficit the respective partners in the Board would have to look to the rates of their respective authorities for supplying it.

FUNCTIONS OF CENTRAL AUTHORITIES.

With the exception of matters relating to loans and audit, the Central supervision of gas undertakings of local authorities rests with the Board of Trade, but it is limited in extent, being confined largely to matters which may be raised in connection with applications by the local authorities for further powers.

Loans and Audit.

The sanctioning of loans in connection with local authorities' gas undertakings and the audit of their accounts is dealt with by the Ministry of Health.

Price of Gas.

The Board of Trade may, under the Gas Regulation Act, 1920, fix or revise the maximum price of gas supplied by local authorities.

Testing of Gas.

The quality, purity and pressure of gas supplied by local authorities is tested by the Gas Examiner appointed by Quarter Sessions, on the application of any five consumers. The manner in which Gas Examiners shall carry out their duties is prescribed by the Gas Referees appointed by the Board of Trade. The costs of the examination must be borne by the local authority.

NOTE.—Where gas is supplied by a company the Gas Examiners are appointed by the local authority. In this case, also, the local authority has power to apply to the Board of Trade for the revision of the maximum or standard price which has been fixed.

Financial Aid.

Except in connection with the relief of unemployment, no Exchequer grants have been made to municipal gas undertakings. As any balance may be used in aid of the rates, so any deficiency must be met out of the rates. This latter practice, however, is not general.

Municipal and Private Enterprise Compared.

Amount of Capital Invested.

An exact comparison between the amount of capital invested in gas undertakings run by public and private enterprise respectively is difficult, since private companies often supply gas, water, and more rarely electricity, at the same time. With this reservation, the total amount of share and loan capital paid-up in the case of private companies in 1922 was £105,805,196, while the amount of money borrowed for the purpose by local authorities up till the year 1922-23 was £57,123,829 (of which £28,616,471 has been repaid or placed in the Sinking Fund). The receipts in the same year were in the case of private companies £46,541,952, and of local authorities £24,084,699. The expenditures were respectively £39,785,069 and £19,414,366. From this it will be seen that about one-third of the authorised gas undertakings in Great Britain are in the hands of the local authorities. It is worth noting that in Scotland there are only four small private companies with a total investment of £313,406, as compared with £13,214,166 borrowed in that country by local authorities.

The two largest private companies are the Gas, Light and Coke Co. Ltd. (over £26,000,000 capital paid-up) and the South Metropolitan Gas Co. (over £8,000,000). Other notable examples are the companies respectively supplying gas to the towns of Liverpool, Newcastle-on-Tyne and Sheffield (each with over £3,000,000 capital). The largest municipal enterprises are those of Glasgow (£4,934,328), Manchester (£4,214,937), Birmingham (£3,063,949), Leeds (£2,386,293), and Edinburgh (£2,275,968).

Profits.

Statutory companies are not allowed to pay more than a fixed maximum dividend. In spite of this, as might be expected, their total profits in 1922 were over £6,000,000 as

compared with about £1,500,000 earned by local authorities. Thus the rate earned by private companies was about twice that earned by municipalities. There is, of course, no reason why the latter should earn any profits at all if they deem it advisable to supply gas at cost price instead of using the profits to reduce the rates.

Prices.

The price charged for gas varies very greatly from place to place, being as low as 4/- per 1,000 cub. ft. in some cases and as high as 10/- per 1,000 cub. ft. in others. Under the 1920 Act, all prices must be by the therm (100,000 B.T.U.) but the transition to the new basis had only been made in a few cases when the latest available statistics were published. In some cases a charge is made for the use of meters, in others they are supplied free. All these factors combine to make difficult a comparison between prices under private and public enterprise. A random selection of prices charged in different districts shows little difference between the general levels in the two cases. Perhaps the advantage in this respect lies slightly with the private companies; if so, it is probably accounted for by the fact that private enterprise would naturally tend to select districts where favourable conditions prevail, and avoid those where special difficulties, such as severe competition with electrical undertakings, render the industry unprofitable.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

Great Britain has long been pre-eminently successful in municipal enterprise in the gas industry. Where, as in the country so often happens, the streets are lit by gas, the case for municipalisation is particularly strong. Conditions in the industry are now relatively stable and there is little that calls for special comment. Perhaps the most interesting tendency is that towards the establishment of the autonomous joint boards. Here, as elsewhere, it is seen that what is a suitable local government area for one purpose may be entirely unsuitable for another, and *ad hoc* bodies are accordingly created.

NOTE.—For further details see Return for Gas Undertakings⁶ for Great Britain, Parts I. and II. (Annual); Minutes of Evidence of Royal Commission on Local Government, Vol. II.

WATER SUPPLY.

In practically every densely populated district in England and Wales, water is now supplied by a piped service and most of these supplies are wholesome and adequate. There are still, however, a very large number of rural parishes, some small urban districts and many outlying houses in larger urban districts which depend for their water on private sources. Of the piped supplies about one-third are in the hands of private companies, with or without statutory powers, and about two-thirds in the hands of local authorities.

Classification of Local Authorities.

The water supply of the Metropolis has been under the control of the Metropolitan Water Board since 1904 when the Board took over the powers of eight private companies (see below). Outside the Metropolis there were in 1915 34 joint authorities and 786 separate local authorities authorised to supply water. The separate local authorities included 51 county borough councils, 151 non-county borough councils, 298 urban district councils and 286 rural district councils. Of these, 106 local authorities had power to supply water in adjacent districts outside their own areas.

Powers of Local Authorities.

Powers to construct water works were granted to local authorities up till 1848 by means of charters, warrants and special Acts. Though general enabling legislation has since been passed, procedure by Special Act is still common. In 1915, 239 local authorities and 152 statutory companies possessed such local Acts. These Acts may under Section 303 of the Public Health Act (1875) be amended or extended by a provisional order of the Ministry of Health. Special Acts are found necessary in the case of all large water undertakings owing to the insufficiency of the powers obtainable under the general laws. In particular the latter place severe restrictions on the borrowing powers of local authorities. In cases, also, of opposition by local landowners having water rights, they fail to overcome the difficulty involved in the acquisition of such rights.

In the case of smaller schemes, however, the general powers conferred on local authorities by the Public Health Act (1875) and the Public Health (Water) Act, 1878, have usually been

found sufficient. Under Section 63 of the former Act water companies may by agreement sell or transfer their undertakings to local authorities. Where the local authority requires compulsory powers special legislation is necessary. Under the Local Government Act, 1894, parish councils may utilise any well, spring or stream within their parish, but this does not interfere with the rights or obligations of any other person, company or local authority respecting the supply of water.

Duties of Local Authorities.

The Public Health (Water) Act, 1878, requires rural authorities to provide or enforce the provision of satisfactory supplies of water for all occupied dwelling-houses within their districts. The Ministry of Health is empowered to invest urban authorities with any or all of the powers and duties of rural authorities under this Act.

Powers and Duties of Private Companies.

Under the Gas and Waterworks Facilities Acts, 1870 and 1875 any company or person may apply to the Ministry of Health for a Provisional Order, subject to confirmation by Parliament, and to the consent of the local authority, authorising them to construct and maintain waterworks and to supply water in places not within the statutory limits of supply of any other undertaker. Such an order lapses if the works are not begun and completed within specified periods of time.

The Water Companies (Regulation of Powers) Act, 1883, restricts the powers of companies as to cutting off of domestic water supplies.

Joint Authorities.

In many cases joint authorities have been set up for the supply of water. They are generally composed of representatives of local authorities of the districts supplied, but county councils and other public bodies are also represented on the Metropolitan Water Board and the Derwent Valley Water Board. The local authorities represented on joint boards and joint committees for supplying water are the councils of the 29 metropolitan boroughs, 10 county boroughs, 28 other boroughs, 78 urban districts and 25 rural districts. Outside the Metropolis the largest joint undertakings were in 1915

the Tees Valley Water Board which distributed 15 million gallons daily, and the Derwent Valley Water Board, which supplied over 10 million gallons daily in bulk to its constituent authorities for distribution by them.

SUPERVISION AND CONTROL.

Central Authority.

The central authority controlling water resources for purposes of Public Health and for domestic and trade supplies is the Ministry of Health. Its jurisdiction and powers are, however, of a very limited character, being largely concerned with the prevention of pollution under the Rivers Pollution Prevention Act, 1876.

Finance and Prices.

Local authorities have limited powers of borrowing money, under the Public Health Acts, but may obtain additional powers by Special Acts. Water is generally charged for by a rate on the assessed value of the premises in the case of domestic supplies and by meter-charges or special arrangement in the case of trade and other bulk supplies. Domestic charges vary greatly in different parts of the country, and may be revised under the Water Undertakings (Modifications of Charges) Act, 1921. As a rule a reduction of charges has followed municipalisation, but the success of public ownership must not be measured chiefly by reference to balance-sheets. In nearly all cases where private companies have been superseded the quality of the water supply has improved and the public health greatly benefited in consequence. Local authorities seldom make much profit out of their water undertakings and not unfrequently have considerable deficits to be made up out of the rates.

Outstanding Examples of Public and Private Enterprise.

The largest provincial water-undertaking in the country is that of the Manchester Town Council, which supplied in 1915 44 million gallons daily, of which 18 million gallons was obtained from Lake Thirlmere, 96 miles distant. Liverpool and Birmingham also obtain water from very distant sources and supplied respectively 35 million and 22 million gallons daily. Other notable examples of municipal enterprise are

afforded by Leeds, Bradford, Sheffield and Kingston-upon-Hull, each with a daily supply of over 12 million gallons. The largest private undertakings are those of South Staffordshire Waterworks Co. (17,000,000 gallons), the Bristol Waterworks Co. (10,000,000 gallons), the Newcastle and Gateshead Water Co. (9,000,000 gallons), the Sunderland and South Shields Water Co., the Borough of Portsmouth Waterworks Co., and the Staffordshire Potteries Waterworks Co. (all over 7½ million gallons).

The Metropolitan Water Board.

With the exception of the supply scheme for Greater New York, which is said to supply 500 million gallons of water per day, the Metropolitan Water Board manage the largest water undertaking in the world. The terms on which it expropriated the private owners are generally considered to have been unduly onerous (see Report of Departmental Committee, 1920 (Cmd. 845) issued by the Ministry of Health—Section 6). This, together with the fact that costs increased greatly during the war, without any increase in the scale of charges, has caused in recent years a very large deficiency, which has had to be made up by the levy of a general deficiency rate. This deficiency amounted in 1919-20 to nearly £1,000,000 (Expenditure, £4,091,542; Income, £3,126,690). A departmental committee, to whose report we have above referred, was accordingly appointed in 1920 to inquire into the provisions and effect of the Metropolis Water Act, 1902, by which the Board was set up, and in its report made several interesting suggestions as regards the reduction of the size of the Board (which at present consists of 66 members representing local authorities concerned and several other public bodies), the appointment of a general manager, an increase in the scale of charges, and sundry other matters. The whole Report is well worth careful study by those interested in local government.

The Water Power Resources Committee, 1918-21.

The demand for water for purposes of domestic and trade supplies comes into conflict with that for industrial purposes (e.g., dyeing, brewing, tanning, etc.), for canals and waterways and, most important of all, for electrical power. These interests come under the purview of the Board of Trade and the Ministry of Transport. In addition the Ministry of

Agriculture and Fisheries is interested in preventing the undue depletion of the rivers and in securing adequate quantities of water for irrigation and the watering of live stock. This conflict of interests led to the appointment in 1918 of a Select Committee to enquire into Water Power Resources. The Committee proposed that the Ministry of Health should set up a Water Commission to be charged with general control over the allocation of water supplies in the interests of the community at large. It also suggested the formation by statute of an Inter-Departmental Committee to reconcile conflicting interests, and provide an effective liaison between the Commission and the Departments concerned. The Committee further proposed the grouping of the watersheds of the country into suitable areas and the setting up of Watershed Boards in substitution for the large number of local authorities now concerned with different interests. It is, however, unlikely that such a Commission will be appointed in the near future.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS AS REGARDS WATER SUPPLY FOR DOMESTIC AND TRADE PURPOSES.

The following additional suggestions contained in the Report of the above Committee and elsewhere have been made :—

1. That the Ministry of Health be empowered to make Provisional Orders for the compulsory acquisition of water-rights. The expense entailed in promoting a Private Bill for this purpose has often proved an effective obstacle in the path of small local authorities, while rural authorities have no power to introduce a Bill, and therefore no means whereby they can abstract water from a stream in face of opposition by a riparian owner.

2. That in schemes to provide towns from particular river basins provision should be made for supplies to be furnished to neighbouring villages.

3. That Section 52 of the Public Health Act, 1875, should be amended to ensure that local authorities should be able to supply water in rural districts, even where these lie within the area of a statutory company's rights, in cases where in practice the company is unable or unwilling to furnish a supply. Such cases arise quite frequently when outlying villages are situated within the area of supply of a statutory company.

4. That local authorities should be empowered to make bye-laws regulating the construction of shallow wells.

5. That local authorities should be empowered to make bye-laws as to the provision of proper water-fittings.

6. That local authorities should be required to obtain orders to close polluted wells.

7. That local authorities should be empowered to provide, or to cause to be provided, a supply of water for a group of houses, and to apportion the expenses as they seem just among the owners having houses within a reasonable distance of the source of supply, with an appeal to the county council or to a court of summary jurisdiction (in place of the provisions of the Public Health (Water) Act, 1878).

8. That property-owners should be compelled to lay on water where a pure and wholesome piped supply is provided.

9. That further power should be given to prevent the occupation of a new house until a proper water supply is provided.

10. That the provisions of existing statutes should be revised and consolidated in one new general Water Supplies Act.

See: The Municipal Year Book (Current Issue); Return as to Water Undertakings in England and Wales, 1915, issued by the Local Government Board (especially the Preliminary Memorandum, pp. ii.-xiii.); Second Interim Report of the Water Power Resources Committee (Cmd. 776), 1920; Final Report of the Water Power Resources Committee, 1921 (especially Sections 1 and 3); Report of the Departmental Committee to enquire into the Provisions of the Metropolis Water Act, 1902 (Cmd. 845), 1920.

TRANSPORT UNDERTAKINGS.

TRAMWAYS AND LIGHT RAILWAYS.

General Legislation.

The principal legislation relating to tramways and light railways consists of the Tramways Act of 1870 and the Light Railways Acts of 1896 and 1912. These Acts have been administered since 1919 by the Ministry of Transport. The

Tramways Act empowers local authorities (other than County Councils and Parish Councils) or private companies to obtain a provisional order to construct tramways with the consent of the Local Authority or in some cases of the Road Authority. The consent of a Local Authority controlling not more than one-third of the line of route may be dispensed with by the Ministry if the other Local Authorities approve. Under Section 19 of the Act, Local Authorities are forbidden to *operate* such tramway undertakings, but it is now the universal custom in granting special orders for a clause to be inserted conferring authority on the Local Authority to do so. Under the Light Railways Acts, Special Orders may be obtained for the construction of light railways by (1) Local Authorities (including County Councils) of any district through any part of which the line is to pass; (2) private companies or persons; (3) any such Local Authorities, companies, or persons, jointly.

Unlike the Tramways Act the Light Railways Acts authorise orders for the compulsory acquisition of land and the construction of lines partly outside the district of the promoting authority. Further, they do not give Local Authorities the power of vetoing an application from the promoters of any scheme within their area, though all reasonable steps must be taken by the promoters to consult the Local Authorities and frontagers. The Light Railways Acts have been used by County Councils, such as those of Middlesex and Hertford and by other Local Authorities operating beyond their own areas, to promote undertakings which are really of the nature of tramways. Indeed, only one Local Authority, the Bradford Corporation, owns what can properly be called a Light Railway, namely, the Nidd Valley Light Railway.

Special Legislation.

In the great majority of cases of Municipal Tramway systems, the Statutory Powers have been obtained by Special Acts.

POWERS OF LOCAL AUTHORITY.

Powers as Road Authorities in Relation to Undertakings within their Area.

In addition to powers already mentioned, Local Authorities have under Section 26 of the Tramways Act, power to control the breaking up and reinstatement of roads. Section 28

provides for the maintenance by the promoters of a tramway track, including a breadth of 18 inches beyond the rails on each side, to the satisfaction of the Road Authority. If the promoters abandon their tramway and take up the rails, they must restore the road to the satisfaction of the Authority.

Under Section 42 the Authority may, after making representations to the Minister of Transport, purchase or remove the tramway if the promoters become insolvent. Under Section 43 it may, with the approval of the Minister, purchase compulsorily any tramways in its area after the expiration of 21 years from the date upon which their construction was authorised and at subsequent intervals of seven years, and may levy a local rate in respect of the purchase money. Under Section 44 it may purchase such tramways at any time by agreement, subject to the consent of the Minister. Under Section 46 it may make bye-laws with regard to the speed and stopping of cars, etc., and, under Section 47, enforce them by means of penalties. Under Section 48 it may exercise a like power of making and enforcing rules and regulations with respect to trams as it has with respect to hackney carriages, drivers, conductors and standings for the same. Powers conferred by Special Orders under the Light Railways Act, 1896, are on very similar lines.

Powers as Promoters of Tramways and Light Railways.

The powers and liabilities of Local Authorities do not differ materially, except in respect of financial control, from those conferred on a company. They include the necessary powers as to construction and working, subject to regulations of the Minister of Transport for securing the safety of the public, powers to charge for the conveyance of passengers and goods, to create a reserve fund, to enter into agreement with other authorities, to erect (subject to Section 11 of the Electricity (Supply) Act, 1919) electric generating stations, etc., for the working of tramways and light railways, to acquire land by agreement or compulsory purchase, etc., etc. Section 19 of the Tramways Act, 1870, provides that Local Authorities may lease their undertakings for terms not exceeding 21 years, subject to the consent of the Minister of Transport.

Joint Action.

Under Section 17 of the Tramways Act, 1870, two or more Local Authorities may construct and own a tramway jointly.

Under Sections 2 and 3 of the Light Railways Act, 1896, the Councils of any Counties, Boroughs or Districts through which the line is to pass may construct and work a light railway or make advances to a company for the purpose either by themselves or jointly with other councils. By Section 17 of the Act such Councils may appoint a joint committee for the construction or working of a light railway. Joint committees so appointed are subject to the provisions of the Local Government Acts, 1888 and 1894, and of the Third Schedule to the Light Railways Act, 1896. The number of joint undertakings at present is small, but the following cases are worth noting: The Bexley Tramways and Dartford Light Railways Committee; the Stalybridge, Hyde, Horsley, and Dukinfield Tramways and Electricity Board (see also under "Electricity Supply"); the Dearne District Joint Committee.

Extent of Municipal Enterprise.

There were on March 31st, 1922, 160 tramway and light railway undertakings in England and Wales owned by Local Authorities, and 68 by private companies. Of the Local Authority undertakings 91 were worked by the owners or by joint boards or committees (total length 1,439 miles), 62 were leased to private companies or other Local Authorities (total length worked by Local Authorities 120 miles; by companies 122 miles), and 7 were not yet constructed. A large majority of the Local Authorities are municipal corporations, the only important county council undertaking being that of the L.C.C. The total capital expenditure in respect of the Local Authority undertakings was about £57,000,000. Outstanding examples are the undertakings of the L.C.C. (159 miles of track; capital £13,076,936); Glasgow (100 miles; £4,646,177); Manchester (120 miles; £2,832,834); Birmingham (72 miles; £2,745,849); Liverpool (70 miles; £2,178,955). Other cities with over 40 miles of track and a capital outlay of over £1,000,000 include Belfast, Bradford, Leeds, Newcastle-on-Tyne and Sheffield.

MOTOR BUSES AND TRACKLESS TROLLEY SYSTEMS.

Local Authorities have employed motor vehicles for over twenty years for fire-fighting, the collection of refuse, watering of streets, ambulances, transportation of road material, coal,

coke, etc., and many other purposes. They have recently been establishing municipal omnibus services, especially as feeders to the tramway system. The high cost of laying tramways has also led to the increasing use of trackless trolleys, especially on the less congested routes.

Powers of Local Authorities.

There is no general legislation authorising Local Authorities to operate omnibuses or trackless trolley systems, and special Acts are in every case necessary. These Acts generally confer powers very similar to those granted in respect of tramway undertakings.

Extent of Municipal Enterprise.

About 100 Local Authorities possess the necessary authority to establish motor omnibus services. Of these about fifty have put such services into operation. Outstanding examples are Edinburgh (87 vehicles; capital outlay £163,074); Birmingham (46 vehicles; capital entirely provided out of tramway profits); Sheffield (43 vehicles; £56,986); Walsall (35 vehicles; £57,528); and Eastbourne (35 vehicles; £39,865). In Eastbourne the motor-omnibus service is the sole means of public transport. About 30 Authorities have power to establish trackless trolley systems. Nine systems have actually been constructed, comprising a total length of 44 miles. The pioneers in this respect were Leeds and Bradford, who obtained Acts in 1910. One Joint Board exists; viz., the Teeside Railless Traction Board, which is composed of representatives of the Middlesbrough Corporations and Eston Urban District Council.

BANKING.

A Municipal Savings Bank was first established in Birmingham under the Municipal Savings Bank Act, 1916, but that Act was in some ways defective and the bank failed to pay its expenses. The municipality, however, obtained the Birmingham Corporation Act, 1919, which amended certain of the defects of the earlier Act, and has established a Municipal Bank on its present footing. The Bank receives money on deposit and makes advances to depositors who desire to purchase their own houses, or to small holders under the Land Settlement (Facilities) Act, 1919. It has also been arranged

that depositors may pay their water accounts and their rates through the Bank. During the past three years the number of accounts has increased from 40,130 in 1920 to 100,245 in 1923, and the amount standing to the credit of depositors in those two years increased from £658,994 to £2,883,942. The number of depositors now amounts to over ten per cent. of the city's population. In the House Purchase Department 427 applications for advances were received, and the amount advanced to the 405 of those applications which were granted was £82,983. Under the Land Settlement Act the amount advanced was £920. During the year 1922-23 six new Birmingham branches were established, and further premises secured.

The establishment of other Municipal Banks is obstructed because municipalities have no general power to set them up, and it is, therefore, necessary to obtain special Parliamentary powers in each case. Swansea in 1920, and Wigan in 1921, attempted to obtain powers like those of the Birmingham Corporation, but failed. A proposal that the City of Glasgow should establish a Municipal Bank was made to the City Council by Mr. Wheatley in May, 1922, but was rejected.

ELECTRICITY SUPPLY.

Until 1919 electricity undertakings were regulated by the Electric Lighting Acts of 1882, 1888 and 1909, and the Electric Lighting (Clauses) Act, 1889. The administration of these Acts was vested in the Board of Trade, except that the authority which sanctioned borrowing by local authorities in England and Wales was the Local Government Board (subsequently the Ministry of Health), and in the case of the Administrative County of London, the London County Council. The growing demand for electricity for other purposes than those of lighting and the need for centralisation of control led to the passing in 1919 of the Electricity (Supply) Act, to which was added in 1922 the Electricity (Supply) Act, 1922. By the 1919 Act the powers of the above departments were transferred to the Minister of Transport and a body of Electricity Commissioners was set up, through whom the Minister of Transport exercises most of his powers and duties.

Powers of Local Authorities.

Under the general Acts the local authorities who may be authorised to supply electricity comprise the Councils of

Metropolitan Boroughs, County Boroughs, Municipal Boroughs, Urban Districts and Rural Districts. In a few instances local authorities have obtained their supply powers by means of private Acts, but the more usual procedure is to apply to the Electricity Commissioners for a Special Order, which will afterwards be subject to confirmation by the Minister of Transport and to approval by Parliament. Under such an order an authority may, in general, borrow money on the security of the rates for the purposes of undertaking, break up public streets and roads in the area of supply, and construct all necessary electric lines and works, subject in certain cases to the prior consent of the Electricity Commissioners or of the Ministry of Transport. Where money is borrowed, the consent of the Commissioners must be obtained; such money is not reckoned as part of the total debt of a local authority for the purpose of any statutory limitation on the borrowing powers of such authority.

Duties of Local Authorities.

A local authority authorised to supply electricity must provide a regular and efficient supply in accordance with an approved system, sufficient at all times for the needs of all consumers. Maximum prices which may be charged are prescribed subject to increase under the Statutory Undertakings (Temporary Increase of Charges) Act, 1918. The authority is also subject to Regulations for securing the safety of the public and for the protection of the lines and works of the Postmaster-General. Furthermore, Home Office Orders under the Factory Acts must be complied with.

Area of Supply.

Local authorities may not only supply electricity in their own districts but also in those of adjoining authorities, and some 60 local authorities do in fact do so. The supply powers for the "outside" district may be obtained (a) by the transfer of the powers previously granted to the "outside" authority, or (b) by a Special Order granted directly to the holders. The consent of the "outside" authority is required, but where it is refused the Commissioners have power to dispense with it, in which event a special report must be made to Parliament. As a general rule the consent of the "outside" authority is obtained before any application is made only in one instance

has it been dispensed with, the Commissioners being very reluctant to adopt this course.

Joint Action by Local Authorities.

By a Special Order of the Commissioners, with the concurrence of the Ministry of Health, two or more local authorities may be constituted a Joint Committee or Board for the exercise of electricity supply powers. Examples of such boards are the Dearne District Electricity Board, and the Stalybridge, Hyde, Moosley and Dukinfield Tramways and Electricity Board.

With the approval of the Commissioners any two or more authorised undertakers (whether Local Authorities or Companies) may enter into arrangements for mutual assistance with regard to (1) the giving and taking of a supply of electricity and the distribution of such a supply, (2) the management and working of generating stations, (3) the provision of capital required under such an arrangement.

These provisions have been freely resorted to and have led to many economies in the supply of electricity.

Joint action may be taken with regard to the re-organisation of the supply under the Acts of 1919 and 1922. (See below.)

Powers of Local Authorities where Statutory Companies Exist.

Where Statutory Companies or other Local Authorities have supply powers within their district, Local Authorities have certain powers and duties. Subject to the qualifications to be indicated these include, *inter alia*, (a) The option of acquiring the undertaking on the expiration of 42 years from the date when the powers were granted to the holding Authority and at recurring intervals thereafter. (b) The Power of approving or disapproving works proposed to be constructed in public streets, subject to an appeal by the Supply Authority to the Minister of Transport. (c) The right to apply to the Minister for a revision of the maximum prices charged. (d) The right to acquire the undertaking if and when the powers of the supply authority are for any reason revoked; and (e) Power to appoint electric inspectors for the testing and certification of meters, etc

In the case of Electric Power Companies authorised by Parliament to supply electricity in bulk the Local Authority have no such rights under (a) and (d) above, but may, however, obtain a special order to supply electricity inside the Power Company's area. Local Authorities under the Public Health Act (1875) may contract for a supply of electricity for the lighting of streets and public buildings and to break up streets for the purpose. Any electric lines and works so constructed by an authority *qua* Public Lighting Authority do not constitute an authorised undertaking within the meaning of the general Acts, and such Authorities may not generate electricity themselves.

AUTHORITIES WHO CANNOT UNDER THE GENERAL ACTS BE AUTHORISED TO SUPPLY ELECTRICITY.

The London County Council.

The jurisdiction of the London County Council in respect of the electricity supply undertakings in the Administrative County of London is of a special character, resembling in many respects that of a Local Authority (as defined in the general Acts) in whose district supply powers are held by a statutory company. For example, the County Council has the option of acquiring all the undertakings of the London Companies in 1931,* and at recurring intervals of 10 years thereafter, the right of making representations to the Minister of Transport in regard to the revision of maximum prices, and many other duties and powers.

Other County Councils.

County Councils, in addition to minor powers and duties, may approve or disapprove, subject to an appeal to the Minister of Transport, works proposed to be constructed in County roads and across County bridges. They may also

*At the time of going to press, the Commissioners' Draft Scheme for setting up a Joint Electricity Authority for London and the Home Counties is still under consideration and is meeting with much opposition from the Labour Party. In particular it is proposed that the Joint Authority should not be able to purchase company generating stations till 1971, though it may, by agreement, acquire those of the Local Authorities. (See a Memorandum entitled "London threatened by Electrical Trust!" recently issued by the London Labour Party, 12, Tavistock Place, W.C. 1. Price 1d.)

be represented on the Joint Electricity Authorities to be set up under the Acts of 1919 and 1922.

A Parish Council may adopt the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833, and undertake the lighting of streets and roads by electricity. Electric lines and works constructed for this purpose do not constitute an authorised undertaking within the meaning of the general Acts.

Extent of Public and Private Enterprise.

On March 31st, 1923, there were in England and Wales 299 Local Authorities and 195 companies or persons authorised to supply electricity. Corresponding figures for Scotland are 25 and 25 respectively. Among the most important Local Authority undertakings are those of Glasgow (capital outlay, £6,138,917; units supplied for all purposes in 1922, 131,341,783); Manchester (£5,607,698; 158,489,732 units); Birmingham (£4,060,826; 111,038,406 units); Sheffield (£3,711,882; 103,170,062 units); Liverpool (£3,092,135; 61,775,150 units); Leeds (£2,756,832; 50,716,837 units); St. Marylebone (£2,429,170; 24,218,918 units); Edinburgh (£2,397,118; 33,935,455 units); and Bradford (£1,869,518; 53,297,419 units). Discrepancies in the proportion between capital outlay and units supplied are generally accounted for by the fact that some undertakings do and others do not supply electricity for tramways. For instance, Glasgow and St. Marylebone do not supply for this purpose at all, and Edinburgh very little, whereas the other towns mentioned do so very extensively. The largest town supplied by a private company is Newcastle-upon-Tyne, which, it is interesting to note, also depends upon private enterprise for gas and water. There are several large private companies in the Metropolitan area.

Prices and Working Costs.

Prices vary considerably but in general municipalities provide electricity more cheaply than private companies. For example, in 1922, the average price per unit charged by six of the largest municipal undertakings in London was 2.16d. per unit sold, and by six of the companies 3.07d. A supplement of the "Electrical Times" for May 1st, 1924, gives the following interesting figures for all the London undertakings:—

Working Costs per Unit Sold.

	Total Average Working Costs. d.	Wages d.	Repairs and Maintenance d.	Management Salaries, and Office and Legal Expenses d.	Rent, Rates and Taxes d.
Municipal ..	1 29	0 14	0 23	0 19	0 15
Company ..	1 15	0 17	0 25	0 29	0 23

Reorganisation of Supply.

It is in general more economical to generate electricity at a powerful generating station for distribution over a wide area than it is to allow each small district to arrange for its own supply. The Acts of 1919 and 1922 have accordingly authorised the Electricity Commissioners (1) to constitute Electricity Districts comprising such areas as will be most conducive to the efficiency and economy of the supply of electricity and to convenience of administration and (2) to establish, where necessary, a Joint Electricity Authority or other body for providing or securing the provisions of a cheap and abundant supply of electricity in such a district. Such an Authority must be representative of the authorised undertakers within the district, with or without the addition of representatives of County Councils, Local Authorities, large consumers of electricity and other interests. It may be empowered (a) to supply electricity throughout the district subject to certain limitation where authorised undertakers exist; (b) to construct generating stations, main transmission lines, etc; (c) acquire by agreement existing undertakings; (d) with the consent of the Commissioners borrow money and issue stock.

The Commissioners had up to March 31st, 1923, provisionally determined 13 such districts. In two cases, namely, the South West Midlands and the South East Lancashire Districts, Joint Advisory Bodies had been set up and a scheme for London and the Home Counties is now under consideration. In practice, these bodies, being representative mainly of vested interests have hardly achieved any tangible results, and some sections of the Labour Party are pressing for far more ambitious measures.

See for references:—

Municipal Year Book (Current Issue).

Fourth Annual Report of the Electricity Commissioners.

Minutes of Evidence before the Royal Commission on

Local Government. (Pt. II., pp. 328-340.)

London Threatened by Electrical Trust!

(London Labour Party, 12, Tavistock Place, W.C. 1. Price 1d.)

MUNICIPAL TRADING IN MILK.

One or two of the local authorities have attempted to perpetuate the good work they performed in this connection during the war. Haverfordwest, for example, is still conducting a health milk business, and in July, 1924, the municipality was selling very high grade milk at 4d. a quart. Haverfordwest is also selling a "Grade A." milk at 5d. per quart. The price charged by private retailers in Haverfordwest for ordinary milk is 4d. a quart, while that charged in the neighbouring towns of Pembroke Dock, Neyland, etc., is 5d. a quart. Another example is that of the Dolgelly U.D.C. in Merionethshire, whose sub-committee arranged in March, 1922, to carry on the municipal milk depot established during the war. Sixpence per quart was the maximum price then charged as against 7d. by the private wholesalers. This depot has, however, been discontinued.

Sheffield is the only local authority at present possessing really comprehensive powers in connection with milk, it being the first and so far the only city to obtain Parliamentary powers to buy and sell milk and dairy produce, establish dairies, milk depots, milk shops and farms. No monopoly was granted. The municipal supply was previously in the hands of the local Food Control Committee. From November, 1918, the date of starting, to April 30th, 1920, a loss on the city's milk trading amounting to £7,151 had been shown, excluding any allowance for goodwill. The chief cause of this loss was the cost of motor transport necessitated by the long distances to deliver, and the fact that only 1d. per gallon was allowed to be charged for cost of delivery. This accounted for £3,488 1s. 7d. of the deficit. From May 1st, 1920, however, the undertaking began to yield a surplus.

In spite of this not unfavourable position, the City Council decided to close down the municipal milk department. In doing so they seem to have been actuated by a financial consideration of the matter rather than from a consideration of the public health. Nevertheless, Sheffield has demonstrated the possibilities of a municipal milk service on something approaching economic lines, and many other local authorities including Burnley, Aberystwyth, and Norwich have shown a considerable interest in the subject.

The City Council of Glasgow resolved to promote a Provisional Order similar to that for Sheffield, but the proposal was eventually dropped in consequence of the opposition of the local Dairymen's Association which protested against the clause enabling a deficiency to be made up out of the rates, and against another clause making distribution in sealed vessels compulsory.

This latter clause was hardly unnecessary, however, for the Council had discovered that a part of the fat in the milk supplied to the City was extracted during transit from the farmer to Glasgow; nevertheless, it appears that this opposition sufficed to smash the movement in Glasgow.

In Manchester a sub-committee of the City Council was specially appointed to consider the municipalisation of milk. The Public Health Committee recommended in April, 1920, that the Corporation should acquire by a Private Act the rights of distribution at present held by the private dealer, and should enforce a monopoly in the City, the cost of compensation being estimated at £461,000. A monopoly, the Committee pointed out, whether in the hands of private enterprise or the local authority, is the only solution for problems presented by large variations in the supply. A private monopoly would be highly disadvantageous to the public, but the City Council, as a single purchaser for the whole district, would be able to exert considerable influence over the farmers as to conditions on their farms, and would stimulate production by guaranteeing payments. In this way, municipal distribution could effect great improvements in methods of handling, transportation, etc.

The margin allowed for the working cost of distribution by the Food Controller to retailers in Manchester in March, 1919, was 10d. per gallon. The actual cost, as stated by the Manchester and Salford Milk Dealers' Association was 5.75d. per gallon, in 1917, and 7.5d. in 1918, assuming only one-third of the milk retailed to customers. The Co-operative Societies in Manchester stated that they were of the opinion that, given a fairly uniform supply and a compact area, the cost of distribution could be reduced to 3d. per gallon.

It is quite obvious that local authorities ought to be given full powers to produce and/or distribute milk as freely as any private undertaker. The Milk and Dairies Act of 1915

allowed any sanitary authority to maintain depots for the sale of milk at less than cost price for infants, and in the session of 1920-1921 a Bill was introduced into Parliament to give power to municipalities to take over the distribution of milk. This Bill was dropped by the Government, although it had pledged itself to introduce the measure.

A comprehensive Act was passed in 1914 followed by a consolidating Statute entitled the Milk and Dairies (Consolidation) Act of 1915, which gave greatly enlarged powers to local authorities, but the putting into operation of that Act was postponed by the Milk and Dairies Act of 1922, which stated that the Act of 1915 was not to come into force *before* the first of September, 1925. The Ministry of Health has to appoint a day, but apparently there is nothing in the Act which compels the Minister to name a date before the given date.

The Milk and Dairies Act of 1922 which is now in force improves the situation to a limited extent in regard to insuring a supply of pure milk, but does not touch the question of Municipal Trading in Milk.

Reference has been made above to the Co-operative Societies in regard to the milk supply, and in this connection it may be suggested that in certain districts where the Co-operative Movement is strong and well organised, it would be more satisfactory and economical for the local authority to arrange with the Co-operative Society to produce and/or distribute a satisfactory milk supply, under supervision if necessary, than for the municipality itself to undertake the work. A provision to this effect should certainly be inserted in any Bill giving the local authority those powers they need so badly in this connection. Since the Co-operative Stores are not motivated by the profit-making impulse, there is no reason to suppose that the disadvantageous features of the privately-owned milk system would be reproduced in the co-operative milk supply.

EXAMPLES OF MUNICIPAL ENTERPRISE.

BRADFORD.

Finance.

The rateable value has risen from £1,630,229 in 1914-15 to £2,281,592 in 1923-24: proceeds of a penny rate therefore being £6,134 in 1914-15 and £8,827 in 1923-24. The amount of the rates has risen from 9s. 3d. in the £ in the former year to 16s. in the £ in the latter; but the increase is really greater than these figures indicate, since the rise in rateable value. On the 1914-15 values, the rate would be 19s. 6d. for 1923-24. The abolition of compounding for rates has necessitated the employment of rate collectors, costing about £26,000 a year. The net amount raised for 1923-24 was £1,245,722, which amounts to £6 2s. 2d. per head of the population.

Expenditure has increased on poor relief from £87,080 in 1914-15 to £449,000 for 1923-24, the latter sum being equal to a rate levy of 4s. 4d. This was higher even than the amount spent on *Education* which came to only 3s. 0½d. out of the 16s. rate. The Education expenditure for rates was £328,000 or £1 2s. 6d. per head of population. In 1922-23, 270,921 school meals were given costing 4½d. each. The Council employs six doctors full-time, three part-time, and four full-time dentists. Three quarters of the children inspected by the dentists needed treatment.

Housing.

The problem of housing still remains difficult. In 1918 the need for 10,000 houses was officially stated, but in that year only 38 were built and in 1919 only 6. Municipal enterprise built 449 in 1921 and 460 in 1922. Direct labour houses cost on the average £929 as compared with £987 for Contractors' houses, not allowing for the guaranteed week to Corporation

EXAMPLES OF MUNICIPAL ENTERPRISE 199

workers which should be valued at £33 per house. The Medical Officer of Health reported that on June 30th, 1923, there were 7,046 applicants for houses; and in 1922, 4,165 houses were declared unfit for habitation. About 10 per cent. of the population are living in overcrowded conditions, that is more than 2 persons per room.

Services.

Trading returns for 1922-23 show profits to the city as follows: Conditioning House, £17,898; Markets, £11,590; Gas, £25,301; Trams, £107,361; Electricity, £88,717; Water, £6,056; making a total of £256,923. Since their establishment the Conditioning House has contributed £21,500 in relief of rates, the Gas department £459,000, the Trams £176,000. In 1920 the Finance Committee under Labour leadership established a clothing department to counteract the prevailing high charges and on 25th September, 1920, it showed a profit of £1,068; but Labour was beaten at the election and the goods were sold off at a loss of £12,000. Similarly brickworks opened in January, 1921, showed a surplus in March of £932, but they were shut down in June by anti-Labour interests.

BRISTOL.

Finance.

The rateable value has risen from £1,858,925 in 1913-14 to £2,055,265 in 1923-24, the amount of the rates for the year 1923-24 being 15/7d. in the £

For the year ended 31st March, 1924, the contribution from the local rates towards *Education* was £276,080—Elementary Education £225,330, and Higher Education £50,750—a total rate of 2/10d. During the year 84,134 free dinners were provided. There are four municipal secondary schools, the number of scholars in these being 1,500 at 31st March, 1924, with a percentage of ex-elementary scholars of 93.8.

By far the most important enterprise of the Corporation is the *Port of Bristol* and the dock system of the port. The Port is managed by a Committee of the Corporation consisting of 11 members. The Corporation own the City

docks acquired in 1848, and the Avonmouth and Portishead Docks acquired in 1884. The deep-water area of the Docks within the Port is 158 acres, and there are five miles of quays. The storage accommodation under the direct control of the Port Authority is over a quarter of a million tons. In 1923 the capital expenditure on the docks and works to date was £7,324,186; the net revenue for 1923 was £252,964, that for 1913 being £111,039. The rate in aid from the borough fund was £68,000 in 1923, and £129,500 in 1913.

Another undertaking is the Colston Hall, to seat 4,000 people, which the Corporation acquired in November, 1919, at a cost of £66,000. The Council through the Management Committee, decided to develop and extend the business by charging an economic rental to promoters of religious, social, political, musical and dramatic functions. The average income from the Hall during municipal ownership has more than doubled, without any appreciable increase in the rental charged during the last twenty-five years. This Hall possesses one of the finest organs in the world, and the Management Committee have organised many recitals in which the finest organists have taken part. The revenue, in addition to providing for all expenditure and extension, is able to provide a substantial contribution to payment of interest and repayment of capital, thereby limiting the demand on the rates to ½d. in the £ per rate.

During the year ended March 31st, 1924, the Committee adapted a smaller hall as a Theatre at a cost of £1,600, and with the co-operation of the Bristol Rotary Club, has founded a permanent Repertory Theatre.

The *Electricity Supply Undertaking* is owned by the Corporation. The net surplus for the year 1922-23 was £58,310. The total capital outlay up to 1923 was £1,442,690. 12,344 users are supplied.

The Corporation also own several fine parks, five public swimming baths, 11 public libraries, including a library of commerce, a museum and art gallery, public baths and laundries, markets which it acquired in 1745, a municipal lodging house and a municipal school of cookery.

GLASGOW.

Finance.

The rateable value has risen from £7,307,672 in 1913-14 to £10,480,454 in 1923-24. The amount of assessment collected per head of the population for the year 1922-23 was 53s. The borrowing powers exercised by the Corporation have amounted in the aggregate to over £38 million, but have been reduced from time to time by the application of Sinking Funds and the proceeds of property sold. In recent years, the annual Capital Expenditure has exceeded the annual Sinking Fund. The outstanding Loan Debt at 31st May, 1923, was £24,509,657. The annual Sinking Fund amounts to £702,000. The total Revenue for the year ending 31st May, 1923, was £10,460,287 12s. 3d., the Expenditure (including Interest, Year's Sinking Fund, and Depreciation and Reserve Funds) £10,087,622 7s. 8d., and the net Interest £1,092,218 13s. 11d.

Housing.

This is the most urgent problem with which the Corporation have to deal. Large numbers of small houses have had to be closed owing to their being certified as uninhabitable. Glasgow contains about one-fourth of the total population of Scotland, and to meet the normal yearly increase of population alone, 3,191 new houses are required annually. The Corporation have proposed to build 57,000 new dwellings, of three, four and five apartments with all possible speed. The total houses completed and in course of erection were in November, 1923, 4,855, of which 4,263 were already occupied. All the houses are built on the living-rooms system—the three-apartment having a living-room and two bedrooms, the four-apartment a living-room and three bedrooms or living-room, parlour and two bedrooms. Each house has a scullery, bathroom, larder, coal store and cupboards. Two schemes, for 290 houses, are to be “all electric,” *i.e.*, the houses will be lit by electricity, there will be an electric cooker and wash-boiler, electric radiators, etc. Ninety houses in one scheme are supplied with hot water from a central boiler-house, and for this the tenants pay a rate of 2s. a week.

Public Health.

The Corporation have been most successful in their administration of public health services, having reduced the death-rate from 29.6 per 1,000 of the population in 1870 to 17.8 per 1,000 in 1922, this difference being equivalent to a saving

of nearly 13,000 lives per annum. The Public Health Department is under the direction of a Principal Medical Officer with a large staff of assistants. For administrative purposes the City is divided into five areas, each in charge of a Divisional Medical Officer. To each division there is attached a staff of Clinical Medical Officers and Nurses. There is also a Sanitary Inspector, with a staff of Assistant Inspectors. There are also two fully equipped disinfecting stations, under a Superintendent, with a staff of engineers, collectors, disinfectors and washerwomen. Five Tuberculosis Dispensaries have been set up in the City. There are 944 beds in hospitals for the treatment of tuberculosis, and 52 beds in sanatoria under the management of the Corporation.

With regard to child welfare, there are 13 separate centres where infant consultations may be held with four lady medical assistants. Six Child Welfare Centres and Day Nurseries have also been established, and three Country Homes opened for young children suffering from infantile diseases. The infant death rate has fallen from 133 per 1,000 births in 1914 to 120 in 1922.

Libraries.

Glasgow is famous for its libraries. The Corporation own the Mitchell reference Library, which was a bequest, and contains 280,000 volumes of great value, and it now ranks with the chief reference libraries in the United Kingdom. There are several other collections of books that have been transferred to the Corporation. A Commercial Library has also been opened in the business part of the City, its purpose being to collect information on all branches of trade and commerce, and make this information accessible to all persons interested or engaged in commercial pursuits. It was opened in November, 1916, and has now doubled its accommodation. There are also eighteen district lending libraries and reading rooms in various parts of the City, and five more are being built. During 1922-23 more than 9,000,000 visits were made to the libraries, and over 3½ million books issued or consulted.

Services.

The Corporation own practically every undertaking in the city such as water, gas, tramways, markets, electricity, etc.

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In 1869 the Corporation acquired the gas undertakings of two local gas companies then supplying gas within the City and surrounding neighbourhood, and constructed new works. The amount of gas manufactured by the two local companies in 1869 was 1,206,921,000 cubic feet and the rate charged was 4s. 7d. per 1,000 cubic feet. Later the Corporation bought up the undertakings of several gas companies supplying gas in the neighbourhood, and the Corporation at the present time supply a district of about 100 square miles, lying within the counties of Lanark, Renfrew, Dumbarton and Stirling. There are now four gas-works belonging to the Corporation and their total manufacturing capacity is 50 million cubic feet per day. For the year ended May 31st, 1923, the amount of gas manufactured exceeded 9,000 million cubic feet, the rates charged for private lighting ranging from 3s. 8d. to 3s. per 1,000 cubic feet, and for power and manufacturing purposes from 3s. 8d. to 2s. 6d. per 1,000 cubic feet. The rate for public lighting in the City supply area is 2s. 6d. per 1,000 cubic feet. The revenue from the sale of gas for the year ended 31st May, 1923, was £1,445,139 15s. 3d. from the City area, and £160,571 3s. 11d. from the adjoining district, a total of £1,605,710 19s. 2d.

In August, 1890, the Corporation, under the Gas Acts, were empowered to supply *electrical* energy within the City for all public and private purposes. In that year they erected a generating station which was completed in February, 1893. Since that year they have acquired various Electricity Undertakings. There are now three generating stations, with 30 sub-stations. The rates of charge are as follows:—

	per unit.
For domestic lighting	4½d.
„ heating, cooking, etc.	1d.
„ office, shop and warehouse lighting	5d. and 1½.
„ motive power and heating	2½d. to 1½d.

Electricity is used greatly both for cooking and heating, and there are in the houses over 21,000 appliances in use (heaters, irons, cookers, cleaners, etc.). The net capital expenditure of all the combined Electricity Undertakings amounted at 31st May, 1923, to £6,767,564, and the revenue for the same year was £1,033,602. The total sum written off for depreciation is £1,217,297; sinking fund, £1,569,046; a

total of £2,786,346. During 1922-23, 141,919,196 units were supplied to 54,590 consumers for heating, lighting and power.

The Glasgow *tramways* have always been the property of the Corporation. Originally the lines ran through a number of suburban burghs, but with the extension of the City in 1891 practically the whole system was brought within the boundary. Till 1894 the tramways were leased to the Glasgow Tramways and Omnibus Company Limited, and the Corporation then decided to work the tramways, and extended the system. As compared with 4,428,518 passengers carried by the tramways company during the four weeks ended 31st May, 1894, the Corporation cars, during the corresponding four weeks of 1895 carried 6,114,789, an increase of 38 per cent. In October, 1898, an electric system was opened, and in January, 1899, the Corporation decided to electrify the whole of the system. The tramways are operated over a length of 245½ miles measured in single track, and the system is now the most efficient and the fares among the lowest charged in the country. There are 974 cars in use. In the year 1922-23 the total number of passengers carried was 417,769,122. The traffic revenue was £2,252,204 12s. 6d., and the gross revenue £2,267,852 19s. 8d.

LEEDS.

Housing.

Three thousand one hundred and sixty houses have been built under the Addison scheme. A further 200 have been built for sale under the Chamberlain (1923) scheme. Leeds was bracketed with Liverpool as having built more houses in proportion to the population than any other city or town.

Municipal Farming.

Powers to carry on Municipal Farming were sought in a Corporation Bill promoted in 1924 session, and obtained.

Poor Law Union Amalgamation.

There have been four Poor Law Unions in the city, resulting in rating and other anomalies. The poorer districts suffered as a consequence. Labour agitated for and eventually popularised the idea of amalgamation and this has now been accomplished under the Leeds Corporation Act of 1924.

Parks.

Leeds now possesses Parks with a total area of over 1,500 acres (including Roundhay Park 629 acres, and Middleton Park 316 acres).

In 1922 the Temple Newsam Estate was acquired. The area is 935 acres, and there is a very large mansion which is now being used as a Museum and Picture Gallery. A large portion of the grounds is being used for recreation purposes and two Municipal (18-hole) Golf Courses have been constructed. The Corporation also run a herd of cattle in the Park and produce milk for the City Hospitals.

Other Services.

Leeds owns its electricity, gas and water services. There are 77 council schools and 51 voluntary schools giving elementary education, 6 large secondary schools and 3 of a smaller type, a training college for teachers, a training college for housecraft, a central technical school a school of art, and 2 preparatory trade schools.

LONDON.

Education.

The expenditure of the London County Council on Elementary Education in 1920-21 was £11,264,868, being the equivalent of a rate of 4s. 10½d. Of this sum, £5,479,546 was supplied by the Board of Education, leaving a net charge on the rates of £5,628,783 (=2s. 5½d. in the £). The expenditure on Secondary Education was £2,516,113 (=6½d. in the £). In addition to maintaining ordinary primary and secondary schools the County Council spent £606,145 on Technical institutions; £440,174 on elementary schools for blind, deaf and defective children; £414,059 on evening institutes; £266,101 on school medical services; £197,196 on scholarships and exhibitions to secondary schools; £185,190 on industrial schools; £148,217 on provision of meals; £147,935 on the training of teachers and smaller sums on grants in aid for university education, grants to institutions not maintained by the Council and on the training of disabled men.

Tramways.

Inside the County of London, the tramways are nearly all owned and worked by the L.C.C. The length of the

system on March 31st, 1922, was 155½ miles. The number of passengers carried in the year ended on that date was 688,151,316. The other leading undertakings in Greater London are the Metropolitan Electric Tramways Co. (55 miles—mostly leased from the Middlesex and Hertford County Councils—116,092,650 passengers), the London United Tramways Co. (54 miles—62,716,404 passengers), the West Ham Corporation Tramways, the Croydon Corporation Tramways, the South Metropolitan Tramways Co., the Walthamstow U.D.C. Tramways, and the East Ham Corporation Tramways.

Miscellaneous Services of the L.C.C.

In 1920-21 the L.C.C. spent £968,445 on the main drainage, £314,345 on lunacy and mental deficiency, £289,902 on sanatorium treatment for tuberculous patients, £81,693 on the diagnosis and treatment of venereal disease, £417,563 on the maintenance of parks and open spaces, and £10,537 on the provision of music and dancing, etc., therein, £829,854 on the Fire Brigade (including pensions), £813,993 on the maintenance and improvement of streets, bridges, tunnels, the Woolwich Ferry, etc.

Markets.

The principal markets in London are in the hands of the Corporation of the City of London. They include the London Central Markets, Smithfield (meat, poultry, provisions), the Billingsgate Market (fish), the Metropolitan Cattle Market, Islington, and others. The Whitechapel Hay Market is controlled by the Stepney Borough Council, the Borough Market largely by the Southwark B.C., and the Woolwich and Plumstead Markets by the Woolwich B.C. Covent Garden and other fruit and vegetable markets are maintained by private owners.

Supply Services.

Except in the case of water London has been slow to municipalise supply services. Gas is everywhere provided by private companies, the three leading ones being the Gas Light and Coke Co., supplying nearly all the county north of the Thames; the South Metropolitan Co., supplying nearly all the county south of the Thames; and the Commercial Co., supplying parts of East London. Electricity is supplied by the Local Authority in 16 out of the 28 metropolitan boroughs. These

supplied 225,713,292 units during the year 1921-22. The amount supplied by private companies within the Administrative County was 354,595,159 units. Apart from the L.C.C. trams, public transport is almost entirely in the hands of the Underground Electric Railways and Associated Companies (including the London General Omnibus Company). These carried in the year 1921, 1,069,600,361 passengers (compared with 688,151,316 carried by the L.C.C. trams).

(See also "Trading Services"—Gas, Electricity.)

WELLINGTON—NEW ZEALAND.

A municipal milk supply has been established under an Act of 1919 giving the Council a monopoly of the sale and distribution of milk in the city and power to grant licenses to persons to sell milk. Since 1922 all milk has been distributed in bottles. About 3,000 gallons of milk are distributed daily, after being bottled by a machine capable of bottling 8,000 bottles an hour. Householders buy tokens at agencies, which are exchanged for milk at their doors. The capital expenditure on the whole scheme up to the end of 1923 was £101,770.

SERVICES MAINTAINED BY SPECIAL AUTHORITIES.

Metropolitan Asylums Board.

The care of the necessitous sick is mostly catered for by voluntary hospitals. In the case of infectious diseases and of patients maintained by the Guardians, hospitals are provided by the Metropolitan Asylums Board, which spent in 1921-22 over £2,000,000 (about the same as the total spent in the County of London by the voluntary hospitals).

The Metropolitan Water Board.

The expenditure by the Metropolitan Water Board in 1920-21 was £5,085,545, and the income £3,273,293. Of this income £2,279,032 was derived from charges for domestic and other unmeasured supplies, £843,146 for measured supplies, and £10,917 for supplies in bulk to adjacent authorities. The balance was obtained from minor receipts. The deficiency on the year's working, falling on the rates was £1,812,252. (See also under "Trading Services"—Water.)

The Port of London Authority.

The area controlled by the Port of London Authority comprises the River Thames from Teddington in Middlesex to the Isle of Sheppy in Kent, together with all the tributary rivers (except parts of the Medway, Swale and Lee) within these limits. The capital expenditure of the Authority from the date of its establishment to 31st March, 1922, was £33,896,495. The total expenditure for the year ended on that date was £7,426,075, and the revenue £7,978,803. The total tonnage arriving in the port in 1921 was 17,369,115, as compared with 12,287,191 in Liverpool, 5,542,771 in Southampton, 6,950,523 in Cardiff, and 6,870,203 in Newcastle--these being the next ports in order of importance in England and Wales.

EMPLOYEES OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

Rates of Wages.

Rates of wages of workers in the non-trading departments of Local Authorities have been agreed upon by a number of District Joint Industrial Councils. The rates so agreed upon were given in the *Labour Gazette*. It should be observed that many Local Authorities have not adopted the recommendations of the Joint Industrial Councils, and wages are adjusted by such Councils individually. Particulars for a number of such Councils will be found in recent issues of the *Labour Gazette*.

JOINT INDUSTRIAL COUNCILS.

Local Authorities Non-Trading Services (Manual Workers), England and Wales.

There is a National Joint Industrial Council for these services. The country is divided into 16 provincial areas and Provincial Councils were formed in nearly all of these divisions. The Provincial Councils for the North-Western Area (*i.e.*, Cumberland and Westmorland), North and East Ridings of Yorkshire, Eastern Division, Northern Home Counties Area North Wales and South Wales, however, are not now functioning, but separate Councils have since been formed for Middlesex and Hertfordshire.

Local Authorities Administrative, Technical and Clerical Services (England and Wales).

The National Joint Council for these services has ceased to function. Provincial Councils are functioning in the London Area, West Riding of Yorkshire, and Lancashire and Cheshire.

Waterworks Undertakings Industry.

There is a National Joint Industrial Council for the industry. The country is divided into 12 areas, in each of which, except the Scotland area, District Joint Industrial Councils have been formed. The District Councils for the Eastern Area, South Western Area and North Wales have ceased to function.

This Council, as well as those for other trading services (*i.e.*, Electricity Supply, Gas and Tramways) includes representatives of company-owned undertakings as well as municipal undertakings.

Electricity Supply Industry.

There is a National Joint Industrial Council for this industry. The country is divided into 13 areas, in each of which District Councils are functioning.

It may be added that there is also a National Joint Board which deals with matters affecting the technical staffs in this industry.

Gas Undertakings Industry.

There is a National Joint Industrial Council for the industry. The country is divided into 11 areas, in each of which Regional Councils have been formed.

Tramways.

The majority of Municipal Tramway Undertakings in England are members of the Tramways' Joint Industrial Council. In Scotland, a number of the larger undertakings follow the J.I.C. decisions, but owing to the fact that Glasgow would have nothing to do with the Council, the other undertakings withdrew from the Council.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE AND GERMANY.

France.

The areas of French local government are, in hierarchical order, the Département, the Arrondissement, the Canton, and the Commune. All, save the last, the commune, had their origin in the political and administrative necessities of the great Revolution and in the autocratic energies of Napoleon I., and are therefore constantly criticised on the grounds of their artificiality and divorce from the true, old local areas, the provinces. The commune, the municipality, whether a village with a handful of citizens, or a great town like Marseilles or Lyons, is the only area now regarded as possessing a "natural" reason for existence. Both the arrondissement and the canton are administrative sub-divisions of the Département, the former with a council, the latter without; and they may be left out of further discussion.

Local Government revolves round the Départements and the Communes: and of the former there are 90, and of the latter about 36,000. When the smaller municipalities are concerned we may further say that local government revolves about the Département; and even beyond that, though it sounds paradoxical, that local government revolves around and is propelled by the central authorities in Paris.

For the structure of French local government—its deliberate creation of areas unrelated to either historical development or geographical and economic factors—is the outcome of the spirit which made it, and which still informs it. That is the spirit of centralisation and hierarchical tutelage. In England we are accustomed to think of our local government system as of a *decentralised* nature. That is to say, English local authorities are accorded a sphere of guaranteed liberties of action, and within this sphere the people of the locality elect

their councillors, who then have an authority controlled only by their electorate and untrammelled by Whitehall. But in France the theory of local government since the later days of Louis XIV., has been an entirely different one. It is a theory of *deconcentration*. All power belongs to the State *at the centre*; and local government exists primarily to ease the central authority of its many burdens, and only, secondarily, as a practical acknowledgment that there is moral benefit in local self-government. Thus the local authorities are, primarily, portions of the central departments of state located in the outlying districts of France. In order, then, that the will of the centre may prevail the authorities are in a hierarchy, and uniformity and order are preferred to variety of form and function.

The *Département*, about the size of an English county, is governed by three authorities, the *Préfet* (Prefect), the *Conseil Général* (General Council), and the *Commission Départementale* (Departmental Commission).

The *Prefect* is of supreme importance. He is the Executive Head of the *Département*. He was intended by the great Napoleon to be the little Napoleon of his district; he was the uncontrolled agent of the central authority to govern the local neighbourhood. When the central government system of France changed from autocratic Empire and conservative monarchy to a Republic, the Prefect remained in his pristine character, the political agent of the Ministers, dependent upon them; and then, chief of the body of technical and professional officials in the local service.

He is virtually appointed by the Minister of the Interior, who advises the President of the Republic. The inhabitants of the *Département* are not asked whether his person is pleasing to them. He comes among them, and is paid by the central authority a sum ranging between £700 to £1,400 a year. No special conditions of capacity and training are required of him save political subtlety and conformity, and the ability to make and keep Government seats safe in the *Départemental* constituencies. But experience teaches them, and many have life-long careers, passing from one post to another. His first business in the *Département* is to make the opinion and wishes of the Government prevail and to see to the execution of central government laws; his second, to administer the affairs of the *Département*.

This he does with the assistance of the Conseil Général, the deliberative assembly of the Département. This body is elected by the body of citizens, each canton returning one member, no matter what its population. It sits for six years: one-half the members retiring every three years: and its numbers range from 17 to 67. It meets, normally, twice a year: once at Easter for a fortnight, when it discusses ordinary questions of government; and again, for a period of a month, in early autumn, when the budget is considered. No matters are discussable by the Council unless they are first submitted by the Prefect, who sends reports in the agenda to all members some time previous to their assembly.

It has powers of resolution (but executable by the Prefect) in the management of Départemental property; of taxes and loans (the latter up to 30 years, the former within certain limits imposed by the central authority); supervision and tutelage over the municipalities; roads, light railways and tramways; public assistance, whether commanded by the State or voluntary schemes in co-operation with other Departments; public health; agricultural education; and local works and charities. But the Council is not as fully sovereign as an English County Council, for the Prefect executes, and there is no remedy against his inefficiency, in spite of the fact that he may be sued, for refusal to execute, before the Conseil d'Etat.

The Departmental Commission is a Committee of from 4 to 7 members, elected by the whole Council, to act as the general watchdog of the administration in the long intervals between its sessions. The Commission meets at least once a month, and discharges all duties delegated to it by the Council, save in regard to taxation and loans, where delegation is not permissible.

The Prefect appoints and controls the employees; makes contracts and purchases (with the advice of the Council), and appropriates expenditure when the Council has not done so.

The other unit of local government, the Commune, or municipality, is governed by a Mayor (*Maire*) and a municipal council (Conseil Municipal), and is much subject to the control of the Departmental authorities. The Council consists of from 10 to 36 members according to the size of the commune, and it is elected by universal *male* suffrage for four years. •

Such a Council may be dissolved by the President of the Republic on urgent public grounds (the Cabinet must assent) ; and may be suspended for a month by the Prefect, who must then give immediate information to the Minister of the Interior.

Until 1884 the Mayor was appointed by the Prefect : since then he is elected by the municipal council for four years. He is in many places constantly re-elected ; and in the small municipalities the schoolmaster is generally made mayor. He is the agent of the central authority (through the Prefect) as well as the executive authority in local affairs. In the first capacity he takes part in the administration and publication of the State laws, aids the State police, executes recruiting regulations, and prepares the electoral lists. In the second, he is the servant of the Council, which is the controlling and advisory body. He is aided by one or more *adjoints*, assistant mayors, elected by the Council, but is finally responsible for the executive branch.

The Council lays down the general lines of policy in regard to finance, building and maintenance of school buildings, police, streets and buildings, lighting and cleansing, and fire protection, and sanitation, the offices for public assistance, pawnbroking. There is not much municipal enterprise, save in the matter of water supply ; and since 1903 the police and fire protection have become objects of increased central control.

The Prefect is very much the arbiter of the commune's destinies. The resolutions of the Council only become effective after they have been lodged for authorisation with the Prefect for one month. The more important projects need his approbation : he may disapprove on grounds of financial or general political inopportunity. Or he may delay approbation and refer the whole matter to the competent central ministry.

The communes are further limited. The municipal budget needs the Prefect's approval, especially where the *octroi*, special loans, almshouses, hospitals, primary school maintenance, markets, public works or lands are concerned : even down to most trivial matters like the establishment of a wash-house or the change of a street name. The central authority can always demand justification of projects of expenditure ;

and the big bulk of expenditure is officially and statutorily *obligatory*, and the central authority *inscribes* upon the municipal budget those expenses that it interprets as obligatory. Further, municipal enterprise being but weakly developed, the necessary franchises in railways, tramways, gas and electricity, must be submitted to the central authority for approval.

Lastly, the Mayor may be deposed by Prefect and central government on public grounds—but since 1908, the written defence of the mayor must be demanded before action: and the judicial section of the Council of State determines the validity of the motive to depose.

Thus is France fitted into a tight jacket of centralisation, routine, system and uniformity. And it is not to be wondered at that *Regionalism* as a gospel of reform has come from that country. That gospel has demanded a greater measure of real local liberties; and a throwing together of departments into new regions. Since 1884 the actual tendency has been towards more centralisation secured by central grants-in-aid given on fulfilment of conditions laid down by the central authority. Observers say there has been a notable falling off in local initiative. Further, it is pointed out, the areas need a thorough revision, because the Departments are, in the main, too small to carry out the big economic works connected with modern transport (roads, light railways, canals, electricity and hydraulic-power supply) education and public assistance. Their resources are not sufficient; the areas are inconvenient. The *Regionalist movement* derives its power from the recognition of these facts. The central idea is, in the first place, to construct about eighteen areas based on economic and geographical factors, and then to give these areas greater liberty than the local authorities have hitherto enjoyed. Since the legislature of 1914 four propositions of law have been submitted to the chambers; but the war prevented the materialisation of these projects. The movement has well-known parallels in Germany and England.

Germany.

The structure and spirit of local government prescribed below is that of Prussia, and with slight variations, not of great importance, holds good of all Germany.

Two features stand out as remarkable in comparison with the English system. First, a careful distinction was made *ab origine* between State affairs and local government affairs. Certain affairs were marked out as clearly those to be administered by the central authority: beyond them, the local authorities, in their varying degrees, had a free hand to experiment. In England local government marches along only on the grant of specific powers from Parliament. Secondly, one notes the separation of the *executive* and *deliberative* functions in German local government. It is government by appointed experts, with lay criticism. Instead of administration by the heads of Committees in touch with the technical experts as in England, or by the politically-appointed Prefect as in France, a skilled official, properly trained, examined, and paid for these professional services, carries on the job of government.

Town government illustrates the matter very clearly. In the more important towns there is the ordinary elected Council for general and normal deliberative purposes: to criticise and advise the executive. It rarely initiates resolutions. It operates, rather, by the selection of a smaller council called the *magistrat* (magistracy) ratified by the Government; and then its resolutions and course of business are mapped out by this body. The *magistrat* is an executive council, at the head of which is the *Burgomeister*. He is not elected by the local inhabitants or by the Council, but he is a State official, who has passed through a severe administrative and legal training, both academic and practical. The Government nominates a number of candidates available, the Town Council chooses from them. He is paid by the town. Naturally the centre of gravity tends to be outside the elected council and to lie with the burgomeister and the magistrat. The burgomeister passes from municipality to municipality amassing experience.

The smaller municipalities have no *magistrat*, but the burgomeister and his assistants (all appointive, none elected) do the work of magistrat and burgomeister as in the big municipalities. The three-class system of election, described in the last paragraph of this section, made the councils the preserve of the middle and upper classes. The important local government areas are:—(1) the *Provinz* (Province);

(2) the *Kreis* (the Circle, or District); (3) the *Gemeinde* (difficult to translate into English terms).

These Provinces are large and of great importance, ranging from 5 million in the Rhineland (1910) to 1.3 million in Schleswig. At the head is the Chief President (*Oberpräsident*), an officer of great power, and established in 1815. He is appointed by the central authority, and is, in the main, an agent of the central Government. He presides over the Provincial Boards of Education, Public Health and Inland Revenue. Immediately assisting him is a *Provincial Council* composed of high professional officials appointed by the Ministry of the Interior (to help in the administration of *administrative law*), and five laymen chosen for six years by another body, the *Provincial Committee*. The work of the Council is to approve of all ordinances before their execution.

An elected body, the *Provincial Assembly*, stands by the side of the President to appoint the administrative staff, to administer the road system, to establish institutions for lunatics, mental defectives, labour colonies, to promote agricultural improvement and education, be the main authority responsible for public assistance, and to control the revenue accruing from government grants and contributions from the Circles. These Circles, indeed, elect through their assemblies, the members of the Assembly, and the delegates are of a conservative nature. The Assembly meet very rarely.

The day by day conduct of affairs is in the hands of the *Provincial Committee*, already mentioned. It consists of a chairman, and from seven to thirteen members elected by the Assembly for six years. Its chief official is a *Landes direktor*, who is salaried and elected by the Assembly, with the central authority's approval, for 6 or 12 years. He is head of the administrative and clerical staff.

These districts of local government are obviously a great convenience for the central authority; because it can devolve the large services like education, poor relief, and roads upon them. But the indirect election to the Assembly and the largeness of the area make popular interest difficult to secure.

Between the Province and the Circle is the Government District, a sub-division of the Provinz, largely for central government purposes. Here again there is an appointed well-qualified executive head: and its Committee contains other

officials, and four unofficial members chosen by the Provincial Committee. The Government District administers the elementary schools, and has the "police power," i.e., all branches of public safety and order, prisons, foods and drugs acts administration, and the execution of the sanitary and building laws. The lay element on the Committee (in a slight majority) are mainly concerned in the discussion of the use of the "police power"; and all ordinances of the Government President require the approval of the Committee.

The *circles* are good-sized urban and rural districts, ranging from 20,000 to 80,000 inhabitants. The Circle is governed by the *Kreistag* (the Assembly), the *Landrat* (the Councillor) and the *Kreisanschuss* (the Committee).

The Assembly consists of at least 25 members. Where there are more than 25,000 inhabitants, there is an additional member for every further 5,000. For purposes of election there were before the war three colleges consisting of (1) large landowners and large manufacturers, (2) the rural consumer and smaller manufacturers and landowners, and towns in the area; and the representation was distributed among these classes and between town and country in proportion to population. Since 1919 proportional representation, with equal and direct election, has been the rule; resulting in less complication, and giving the liberal and socialist elements more representation, where formerly landowners and well-off industrial men predominated. It meets two or three times a year to deal with the finances of the district and to decide the administration of the smaller roadways, hospitals, its part in public assistance. It is purely deliberative, the executive work being done by the *Landrat* and the Committee; and elects representatives to the Provincial Assembly.

The *Landrat*, an ancient office, is nominated by the Assembly and appointed by the central authority. He personifies the bureaucratic officialdom: a man of legal and political training, with at least four years' administrative experience, and having resided at least a year in the Circle. He is the "police" representative of the central government; and superintends education, controls the subordinate officials. He is assisted by officials called *assessors*; and by the usual technical officers—medical officers, analysts, school inspectors, etc. He is subject to the supervision of the Government President.

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The Circle Committee consists of the Landrat and six unofficial members elected by the Assembly for six years. It is the executive, the active force in Circle affairs, and supervises the lower authorities, but in this capacity it is guided by rules laid down by the central authority.

The *Gemeinden* are comparable in their small size and unimportance to the parishes in England. The very small villages have a primary meeting as their governing assembly. Where there are over 40 there is an elected Council, who elect an unpaid chief man. Where there are over 3,000 inhabitants they can appoint a paid Chief for 12 years, with assistants to work under his direction. The authorities may spend money on poor relief, small roads, fire prevention, drainage and street cleansing; and their revenue is derived from small taxes on dogs, entertainments, circuses, and small additions to State taxes. They tend to be "bossed" by the Circle authorities. Elections to these Councils were, till 1919, subject to the three-class system, i.e., one-third the representation was attributed to each group of citizens who, by reference to the taxation registers, were shown to have paid the first third, the second third, and the last third of the total amount of annual revenue. Now, proportional representation—with equal and direct election—exists.

The impact of the democratic Revolution of 1918 has yet to be fully felt on the structure and spirit of German local government. The three-class system prevailed in the municipalities. This meant that only the richest taxpayers controlled the representation in the Councils. The new electoral law will give the workers, for the first time, the opportunity to take a full and free part in the government of their towns.

Books:—

Ashley: "Local and Central Government." This was published in 1906, but it is still the latest book in English on the subject.

Dawson: "Municipal Government in Germany."

Munro: "Government of European Cities."



LABOUR POLICY ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

RESOLUTIONS OF LABOUR PARTY. CONFERENCES.

Resolution No. XIV. (26th June, 1918).

"That in order to avoid the evils of centralisation and the drawbacks of bureaucracy, the Conference suggests that the fullest possible scope should be given, in all branches of social reconstruction, to the democratically elected local governing bodies; that whilst the central Government Departments should assist with information and grants in aid, the local authorities should be given a free hand to develop their own services, over and above the prescribed national minimum, in whatever way they choose; that they should be empowered to obtain capital from the Government at cost price, and to acquire land cheaply and expeditiously, for any of the functions with which they are entrusted. The Conference holds, moreover, that the Municipalities and County Councils should not confine themselves to the necessarily costly services of education, sanitation, and police, and the functions to be taken over from the Boards of Guardians, nor yet rest content with acquiring control of the local water, gas, electricity and tramways, but that they should greatly extend their enterprises in housing and town planning, parks, and public libraries, the provision of music and the organisation of popular recreation, and also that they should be empowered to undertake, not only the retailing of coal, but also other services of common utility, particularly the local supply of milk, where this is not already fully and satisfactorily organised by a co-operative society. Further, this Conference thinks . . . that in order to throw the position of Councillors open to all persons, rich and poor, all Councillors should be provided with payment for any necessary travelling expenses, and for the time spent on the public service."

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Resolution No. XVII. (26th June, 1918).

"That this Conference calls for the prompt carrying out of the Government's declared intention of abolishing, not merely the Boards of Guardians, but also the hated Workhouse, and the Poor Law itself, and the merging of the work heretofore done for the destitute as paupers in that performed by the directly elected County, Borough, and District Councils for the citizens as such, without either the stigma of pauperism or the hampering limitations of the Poor Law system."

Resolution No. XXIV. (24th June, 1921).

"That in view of the enormous increase in the burden of local rates, this Conference is of opinion that the whole system of local rating should be considered by the Executive Committee with a view of making a report to the next Conference on the desirability of taxation of site values and the institution of the principle of a Municipal Income Tax," and

"That the National Labour Party be urged to promote measures for State and Municipal Banking."

Resolution. 30th June, 1922.

"That this Conference is of the opinion that the present system of meting out responsibilities in the matter of Education, Maintenance of the Poor, Unemployed Relief, Asylums, Hospitals, etc., by means of Local Rates, is unjust and oppressive, and declares itself in favour of these being National charges with adequate local control."

Resolution. 29th June, 1923.

"This Conference urges the Parliamentary Party to seek the earliest opportunity of amending the Local Government Act, 1899, by removing the disqualification from which a person suffers who has been or is receiving Poor Relief from being a member of a Local Governing Body."

(Local Government (Removal of Disqualifications) Act received Royal Assent on 1st August, 1924.)

PROPOSED LEGISLATION.

Local Authorities (Enabling) Bill.

This is a measure to extend the powers of Local Authorities in matters of finance and municipal trading.

It substitutes a system of granting general powers, subject, in certain matters, to specific central regulation and control, to the larger local authorities for the present system of giving them specific powers for particular purposes.

Clause 1 enables the councils of counties, the larger boroughs and urban districts to acquire land, and do everything which a company, acting under the Companies Act, 1908, might lawfully do. Clause 2 specifies the procedure by which the powers set forth in Clause 1 may be exercised. Clause 3 deals with borrowing powers and the sanction of the Board of Trade to loans, and compels a council to obtain the consent of Parliament through a Board of Trade Provisional Order when the proposed loan exceeds one-quarter of the annual rateable value of the rated property in the council's area.

By Clause 4 the Board of Trade may authorise a council to exercise its powers under this Act outside its own area when this is deemed desirable.

Clause 5 enables councils to combine in an undertaking.

By Clause 6 a council is restrained from selling or leasing an undertaking for a longer period than seven years, unless it has obtained the sanction of the Board of Trade.

By Clause 7 smaller district councils and parish councils may exercise powers, but only with the Board of Trade's consent and under conditions to be prescribed by them.

Clause 8 requires every council to place the net profits of their undertakings in a common fund, which fund may not be used for the reduction of rates.

Nothing in the Bill interferes with the existing powers of councils conferred upon them by public or private statute, Provisional Order, or common law.

This Bill represents the Labour Party policy and is discussed in a pamphlet, "The Citizen's Charter," by Herbert Morrison, published by the Labour Party, price 1d.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOCIETIES.

Association of Assistant Overseers and Rate Collectors (Incorporated).

Secretary : H. E. Whiting, 34, Palmerston Crescent, Palmers Green, London, N. 13.

Association of Education Committees (England and Wales).

Hon. Secretary : F. J. Leshe, M.A., 34, Castle Street, Liverpool.

Objects : (i) To give information to and otherwise assist Education Committees on all questions regarding Education.
(ii) To take action in regard to all subjects affecting Education.

Association of Local Government Financial Officers.

Hon. Secretary : W. E. Lloyd, F.I.M.T.A., F.S.A.A., Borough Treasurer, Hampstead.

Objects : (a) To provide a central organisation for Local Government Financial Officers (b) To promote the professional interests, rights, powers and privileges of all Local Government Financial Officers.

Association of Municipal Corporations.

Secretary : Harry G. Pritchard, Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Association of Poor Law Unions in England and Wales.

Secretary : Herbert Davey, Barrister-at-Law, 2, Brick Court, Temple, E.C. 4.

British Waterworks' Association, 173, Rosebery Avenue, London, E.C. 1.

Secretary : G. P. Warner Terry.

Commons and Footpaths' Preservation Society.

Secretary : Lawrence W. Chubb, 25, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

County Councils' Association.

Secretary : S. M. Johnson, 84, Eccleston Square, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Garden Cities and Town Planning Association, 3, Gray's Inn Place, Gray's Inn, London, W.C. 1

Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants (Incorporated).

Hon. Secretary : J. Gronow, F.S.A.A., Borough Treasurer, Bootle
 Objects : To disseminate information relating to municipal finance and accountancy. To improve the technical and general knowledge of municipal treasurers and accountants

Institution of Municipal and County Engineers.

Secretary : J. W. Dudley Robinson, 92, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

London Municipal Society and the National Union of Ratepayers' Association.

Secretary : W. G. Towler, Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Objects : To promote and maintain the effective and economical working of Local Government in London and throughout the country, etc.

Municipal Tramways' Association (Incorporated)

General Secretary : J. Beckett, 5 & 6, Clement's Inn, Strand, W.C. 2

Municipal Employees' Association. Head Office : 24, Fitzjohns Avenue, Hampstead, N.W. 3.

General Secretary : Peter J. Tevenan

National Housing and Town Planning Council.

Secretary : Henry R. Aldridge, 41, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.

National Joint Industrial Council for Local Authorities Non-Trading Services (Manual Workers).

Secretary : G. B. Cottier, Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Royal Institute of Public Health.

Hon. Secretaries : Prof. E. W. Hope, M.D., D.Sc., T. N. Kelynak, M.D., J.P., 37, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.

Royal Sanitary Institute.

Secretary : E. White Wallis, F.S.S., 90, Buckingham Palace Road, S.W. 1.

Rural District Councils' Association.

Secretary : H. E. Swallow, Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W. 1

Society of Medical Officers of Health.

Secretary : G. S. Elliston, M.C., M.A., Barrister-at-Law, 1, Upper Montague Street, London, W.C. 1.

Urban District Councils' Association.

Secretary : Arthur J. Lees, Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Women's Local Government Society (Incorporated).

Secretary : Miss Berry, 19, Tothill Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

TRADE UNIONS AND OTHER EMPLOYEES' ASSOCIATIONS.

- NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICERS.—L. Hill, Caxton Hall, Westminster, London, S.W. 1.
- NATIONAL UNION OF CORPORATION WORKERS.—A. Taylor, 138, First Avenue, Manor Park, London, E. 12.
- NATIONAL POOR LAW OFFICERS' ASSOCIATION (INCORPORATED).—J. Simonds, M.A., 3, Upper Montague Street, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.
- POOR LAW OFFICERS' UNION.—G. V. Evans, 372, Gray's Inn Road, London, W.C. 1.
- SANITARY INSPECTORS' ASSOCIATION.—J. P. Humphrey, 15, Bessborough Street, Westminster, London, S.W. 1.
- NATIONAL UNION OF WATERWORKS EMPLOYEES.—A. Harwood, 10, Tatam Road, Stonebridge Park, Willesden, London, N.W. 10.
- LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL STAFF ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Willmot, New County Hall, London, S.E. 1.
- NATIONAL ASYLUM WORKERS' UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—G. Gibson, 1, Rushford Avenue, Levenshulme, Manchester.
- (BIRMINGHAM) CITY CORPORATION LAMPLIGHTERS' BENEFIT AND PROTECTION SOCIETY.—F. W. Hutton, 106, Maas Road, Northfield, Birmingham.
- LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL SCHOOLKEEPERS' ASSOCIATION.—C. Meades, L.C.C. School House, Suffolk Street, Rotherhithe New Road, London, S.E. 16.
- SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OFFICERS' NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.—E. Winfield, 37, Hulton Street, Alexandra Park, Manchester.
- BOROUGH OF ST. MARYLEBONE MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES' UNION.—D. Kitchenor, 11, Exeter Street, London, N.W. 8.
- CITY OF BIRMINGHAM MUNICIPAL OFFICERS' GUILD.—H. Wilson, Empire House, Great Charles Street, Birmingham.
- NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MASTERS AND MATRONS OF POOR LAW INSTITUTIONS.—G. E. Usher, Howbeck House, West Hartlepool.
- WOMEN SANITARY INSPECTORS' AND HEALTH VISITORS' ASSOCIATION.—Miss H. M. Gray, 92, Victoria Street, (Top Floor) London, S.W. 1.
- ASSOCIATION OF CLERKS AND STEWARDS OF MENTAL HOSPITALS.—D. Neave, London County Mental Hospital, Hanwell, London, W. 7.
- NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CEMETERY SUPERINTENDENTS.—W. A. Cochrane, Hampstead Cemetery Office, Fortune Green Road, West Hampstead, London, N.W. 6.
- FIVE JANITORS AND COMPULSORY OFFICERS' ASSOCIATION.—G. F. Husband, Five Janitors and Compulsory Officers' Association, Castlehill Schoolhouse, Cupar.
- CORPORATION OF THE CITY OF LONDON STAFF ASSOCIATION.—E. F. Price (*pro. tem.*), Guildhall, London, E.C. 2.

INSTITUTE OF MUNICIPAL AND COUNTY ENGINEERS.—J. W. Dudley Robinson, B.Sc., F.G.S., 92, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

ASSOCIATED MUNICIPAL ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND).—A. N. Moore, 16, Commercial Street, Newport, Mon.

ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS OF SCOTLAND—R. Small, Town House, Lochgelly, Fife.

GLASGOW SOCIETY OF REGISTRARS OF BIRTHS, ETC.—J. R. MacDiarmid, 256, Paisley Road West, Glasgow.

LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE ASSOCIATION OF ASSISTANT OVERSEERS AND COLLECTORS OF POOR RATES.—S. Brookfield, 144, St. Mary's Road, Garston, Liverpool.

MENTAL HOSPITAL OFFICERS' ASSOCIATION.—H. Howes, 235, Franciscan Road, Tooting, London, S.W. 17

METROPOLITAN ASYLUMS BOARD ENGINEERS' ASSOCIATION.—J. W. Day, South Eastern Hospital, Avonley Road, New Cross, London, S.E. 14.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATIONAL ORGANISERS.—M. Jackman, Willmar, New Barn, Longfield, Kent.

SANITARY INSPECTORS' ASSOCIATION OF SCOTLAND—A. W. Ritchie, Sanitary Department, Johnstone Terrace, Edinburgh.

SOCIETY OF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH.—G. S. Elliston, M.A., 1, Upper Montague Street, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.

WEST RIDING OF YORKSHIRE HIGHWAYS SURVEYORS' ASSOCIATION.—W. Welby, Council Offices, Gildersome, Leeds.

MUNICIPAL FOREMEN'S AND INSPECTORS' ASSOCIATION—J. C. Wallis, 2, Duncan Road, Slade Lane, Longsight, Manchester.

FIREMEN'S TRADE UNION.—J. J. W. Bradley, 89, Tabernacle Street, London, E.C. 2.

UNION AND RURAL DISTRICT CLERKS' ASSOCIATION.—J. A. Battersby, O.B.E., 50, Shakespeare Street, Nottingham.

ASSOCIATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCIAL OFFICERS.—W. E. Lloyd, Town Hall, Hampstead, London, N.W. 3.

INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF RATE COLLECTORS AND ASSISTANT OVERSEERS.—H. E. Whiting, Town Hall, Palmers Green, London, N. 13.

ASSOCIATION OF BATHS SUPERINTENDENTS.—J. Jefferson-Hope, Bow Baths, Roman Road, London, E. 3.

ASSOCIATION OF DIRECTORS AND SECRETARIES FOR EDUCATION.—F. Herbert Toyne, 54, Old Steine, Brighton.

ASSOCIATION OF LOCAL LANDS VALUATION ASSESSORS OF SCOTLAND.—D. Elder, City Chambers, 249, George Street, Glasgow.

ASSOCIATION OF MANAGERS OF SEWAGE DISPOSAL WORKS.—J. F. Croll, Main Drainage Works, West Hall Road, Kew Gardens, Surrey.

BUILDING SURVEYORS' AND INSPECTORS' ASSOCIATION.—W. A. Warwick, M.R.S.I., 124, Well Lane, Birkenhead, Cheshire.

INCORPORATED SOCIETY INSPECTORS OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—R Robertson, Weights and Measures Office, Watford.

NATIONAL UNION OF MUNICIPAL AND GENERAL WORKERS.—Will Thorne, M.P., 28, Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

PUBLIC WORKS AND CONSTRUCTIONAL OPERATIVES' UNION.—Lt.-Col. John Ward, C.B., C.M.G., M.P., Appleshaw House, East Hill, London, S.W. 18.

The following unions not specially connected with local government include, however, many employees of local authorities :—

Transport and General Workers' Union ; Workers' Union ; Amalgamated Engineering Union ; Electrical Trades Union ; National Amalgamated Union of Enginemen, Firemen, Mechanics, Motormen and Electrical Workers ; Electrical Power Engineers' Association ; Associated Blacksmiths' and Ironworkers' Society ; National Amalgamated Labourers' Union ; and Winding and General Engineers' Society.

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